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EDITORIAL NOTES

AT the suggestion of President Nollen, the Grinnell Citizens' League was organized last year for the purpose of representing the various interests of the citizens of Grinnell and clarifying and mobilizing public opinion in matters of vital concern to the community. This movement on Grinnell's part antedated the proposals now being made for the organization of Local Citizens' Councils for Constructive Economy.

THE Columbia University Law School has just announced increased tuition in the Law School in order that it may appropriate \$68,000 in scholarships and loans to needy law students.

THE membership of the Association of American Colleges, 469, is now the largest in its history.

THE Association office is sending to each member college, without charge, two copies of *Comprehensive Examinations in American Colleges* by Edward Safford Jones.

THE Comprehensive Examination Study was completed without the expenditure of the full amount appropriated by the General Education Board and the balance has been returned to the Board.

THE remarkably well ordered report of the Beloit College Dormitories Association for the year ended June 30, 1932, shows total assets of \$642,432.86; income of \$127,474.19 and a net profit of \$15,971.03.

ELMIRA COLLEGE devotes an entire floor of the new library building to the use of reserved books with a special attendant in charge. There are numerous alcoves and private rooms for study, with excellent natural light.

PRESIDENT LOWELL announces that Harvard University has abandoned use of the degree of Associate in Arts for an amount of extension work equivalent to a full four-years' college course, because the title has been put to such general use for two years of college work. For extension work equivalent to a full

four-years' college course, a new name has been adopted, "Adjunct in Arts" (Adj.A.), which it is thought is a degree without duplication.

THE book on the *Architectural Planning of the American College*, by J. Fredrick Larson and Archie M. Palmer, has come from the press. A complimentary copy has been sent to the executive officer of each college holding membership in the Association. Additional copies may be obtained, at \$2.00 each, from the publishers, the McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd Street, New York. The usual discount is offered to libraries.

This volume is an outgrowth of the architectural advisory service which the Association has maintained for several years past, and is an effort, by description and illustration, to give an account of recent developments in college architecture with special reference to the liberal arts college.

At this time, when careful planning is so essential, this book will be of particular value not only to architects but also to college presidents, trustees, faculties, superintendents of buildings and grounds, finance officers, members of building committees, and others concerned with the economical maintenance and development of the American college. In *Architectural Planning of the American College* will be found practical application of many of the suggestions made by Mr. Merrill in the article found on page 263.

THE Hartford National Bank and Trust Company is the trustee of the estate of the late Charles Boswell who died in the year 1884, leaving the residue of his estate in trust for three beneficiaries, two of them being Doane College, Nebraska, and Washburn College, Kansas. The securities remaining on hand after the settlement of the estate were, real estate \$17,200.00 and personal property \$319,510.36, making a total of \$336,710.36.

By the terms of the will no distribution of the principal can be made until after the death of Mr. Boswell's daughter. During her lifetime she receives annually a specified sum from the income of the fund. After this amount is paid there still remains a balance of income which is added year by year to the estate.

Mr. Boswell made a wise selection of trustee to administer his estate. Through conservative and wise investments of this trus-

tee, the original sum has been multiplied several times until now its value is listed, according to present report, at \$1,741,204.04.

TO meet the first deficit Lafayette College has had in thirty years—\$30,000—the Board of Trustees has adopted a “One-Day Campaign” to mark the 101st anniversary of the opening of the College, on May 9. Before that date the trustees, members of the faculty and staff of the College, alumni and parents of students will be canvassed for contributions. This will not be in the form of pledges but of cash. A large thermometer will be arranged in front of Pardee Hall with the lines upon it each representing \$100. On May 9 the individual contributions will be announced from a platform in front of the building and the marker on the thermometer raised accordingly. The day will be made one of various events which will attract townspeople and others to the campus. No one but the President will have knowledge of what the subscriptions are until they are officially opened on the celebration day, which the College is calling “Balance the Budget Day.” The College is finding an enthusiastic response to the idea.

A CONFERENCE on the foreign student problem called by the Institute of International Education, March 8, in New York, considered three drafts of treaties that would avoid the difficulties of administration of the past year, and unanimously agreed upon the following form for submission to the State Department:

Desiring to facilitate the international exchange of students with a view to promoting education, strengthening ties of international solidarity, and laying more firmly the bases for international cooperation, the High Contracting Parties agree that

Any *bona fide* student, national of the other High Contracting Party, who fulfills the statutory conditions for admission (into the country) and residence of alien students, shall be permitted to pursue his studies under the usual conditions applying to a national student, including the privilege of working his way as a student.

The foundations and educational and social service organizations represented at the conference were: Rockefeller Founda-

tion, Commonwealth Fund, Carl Schurz Memorial Foundation, C. R. B. Educational Foundation; American Council on Education, Association of American Colleges, Association of Land Grant Colleges, Association of American Universities, Association of American University Professors, American Association of University Women, Institute of International Education, Columbia University, the University of Chicago, Cornell University; International Migration Service, Committee on Friendly Relations among Foreign Students, Foreign Division of the Y. W. C. A., Foreign Language Information Service, Travelers' Aid Society of New York.

THE annual report of President Diehl, of Southwestern, Memphis, makes significant reference to the salary situation in the South:

Salary reductions are not uncommon, but there are very few colleges in the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools which have reduced faculty salaries more than 10 per cent, the reduction as reported at the annual meeting last December being far less than was expected. The official report of the 122 institutions of higher education holding membership showed that there had been salary increases in 17 institutions, unchanged conditions in 40, and decreases in 65 others. Of course, the easiest way, requiring little thought or executive ability, is to make salary cuts, but this is the last thing that should be done. It should be noted, as a recent study of Dr. Wilson Gee, of the University of Virginia, indicates, that the salary scale for professors in the South is 35 per cent lower than it is in other sections of the country and that the cost of living is not, as is popularly supposed, less in the South.

Southwestern's recent removal to Memphis and the consequent necessity for erecting and equipping an entirely new plant and the meager endowment present peculiar difficulties in balancing the budget. In the spring of 1932 a campaign to provide \$135,000 for the deficit in operating expenses of the past three years was undertaken; the people of Memphis contributed \$57,000, but the Synods and other friends of the college must take up the cause, if the institution is to continue to maintain its present high standards. Salaries have been reduced 16 per cent.

MR. PAUL W. AGER, Technical Secretary of the National Committee on Standard Reports for Institutions of Higher Education reports as of April 12 that the Committee has received responses from 201 institutions out of a total of 520 contacted. Only 50 institutions have indicated that they have not adopted the forms. Forty-eight institutions have adopted the forms in detail, 61 have adopted them in principle, 16 have adopted them in part, and 26 plan to adopt the forms as soon as possible. No doubt others have adopted these forms but have not reported the fact.

Seventy-six institutions have furnished published reports. It is interesting to note how much uniformity there is among the reports to the National Committee either in detail or in principle. These reports give an intimate picture of the financial condition and operations of the institutions thus reporting. Clear and accurate interpretations are readily possible. The success of the National Committee's program can be judged by the improvement and increasing usefulness of institutional reports.

THE Eighth Annual Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions will be held at the University of Chicago on July 12, 13 and 14. The central theme of the Institute will be "Readjustments in Higher Education to Meet New Conditions." Both temporary and permanent readjustments will be considered.

The program for the first session will include the following reports: "The Present Emergency in Higher Education" by Robert M. Hutchins; "The Efficacy of the Depression in Promoting Self Examination" by Lotus D. Coffman; "The Influence of Social Trends in Educational Reforms, With Special Reference to Civic Education" by Charles E. Merriam.

Other speakers announced are Presidents Arthur J. Klein, Homer P. Rainey, George F. Zook, R. M. Hughes; Deans C. H. Judd, George A. Works, A. J. Brumbaugh, and Professors Robert C. Woellner, T. Nelson Metcalf, Floyd W. Reeves, John Dale Russell, and others.

SOUTHERN COLLEGE in Lakeland, Florida, was faced in January, 1933, with foreclosure action by holders of \$318,000 worth of first mortgage notes on the college property.

President Spivey obtained an offer from the note holders for a settlement on the basis of 25 cents on the dollar. A vigorous appeal was made during March and April for the \$79,000 required to make this settlement and continue the life of this 48-year-old college. The organized appeal opened on the day the bank moratorium started. In spite of difficulties it is winning through to complete success—over \$70,000 is now in hand.

OUR churches, colleges and hospitals have survived the depression thus far better than our business and financial institutions, according to the results of a study made by A. C. Marts, president of Marts & Lundy, Inc., of New York.

"During the past three years, one of every 22 business and industrial concerns went into bankruptcy and one of every 6 banks has been closed," he said. But only one of every 40 four year colleges has been closed up because of finances; one of every 45 hospitals and only one in every 2,344 churches has been foreclosed."

As a matter of fact, Mr. Marts very much understated rather than overstated the case of the colleges. In the list of 18 colleges submitted by him to this office as closed, all but 5 according to our information, have been merged as junior colleges or in other ways or federated with other institutions. Of the 5 which have been actually closed, one is now a seminary so that this cannot be called a complete loss. Certainly this movement indicates rather dramatically the values of intra-denominational and inter-denominational cooperation.

JAMES HERBERT CASE, Chairman of the Governing Board of the Federal Reserve Bank, New York City, is a trustee and chairman of the committee on finance of Elmira College. He is also a trustee and member of the finance board of the Ministers and Missionaries Benefit Board of the Northern Baptist Convention.

B

HARVEY C. COUCH, member of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, president of the Board of Trustees of Hendrix College, Arkansas, has helped greatly in the merger at Conway that has now brought three colleges of that state together as one.

THE faculty of Roanoke College, Virginia, meet once a month during the college year and consider a carefully prepared paper by a faculty member on some phase of the college work. No business is transacted. The discussion is followed by social intercourse. Some of the topics discussed recently are Roanoke's Educational Objective, Teaching Methods at Roanoke College, Religious Values on Roanoke College Campus, The Teacher's Social Attitude Towards Students, The Professional and Non-Professional Reading of the College Teacher, Classroom Discussions of Controversial Questions in the Fields of Government, Economics, Sociology and Religion, Some Problems which Concern Roanoke College next Session.

AT the annual meeting of the Association of Colleges and Universities of the Pacific Southwest, the following officers were elected for 1933-34: *President*, Remsen D. Bird, Occidental College; *Vice-President*, Max Farrand, Huntington Library; *Vice-president*, Frank C. Touton, University of Southern California; *Secretary-treasurer*, Charles T. Fitts, Pomona College. In addition to these officers and the Chairmen of Standing Committees to be appointed later, the following will serve on the Executive Committee: Hugh M. Duce, Loyola University at Los Angeles; Gordon Watkins, University of California at Los Angeles; Walter S. Adams, Mt. Wilson Observatory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington; Wm. S. Ament, Scripps College, and Everett R. Perry, Public Library of the City of Los Angeles.

COLLEGE AIMS

W. E. PEIK, principal specialist in Curriculum Research of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, reports an effort to secure statements as to the aims of American universities and colleges. Replies were received from 53 universities, 191 colleges of liberal arts, 57 junior colleges and 145 teachers' colleges and normal schools. The universities led the other units of education in designating as their aims the knowledge of subject matter, scholarly and scientific attitudes, professional and pre-technical training, training in scientific techniques, research, education of graduate students for Master's and Doctor's degrees. The colleges led in a general rather than

a specialized education, morality and character training, religious training, training for social as distinguished from technical leadership, conserving the accomplishments of mankind, mental discipline. The junior colleges led in civil-social responsibility, manners, that is, acquaintance with the established forms of etiquette. The teachers' colleges led in command of fundamental processes, education of teachers, training for physical efficiency and health, attention to individual differences, cultural development of prospective teachers, training in practical subjects for life needs, occupational or vocational efficiency, coordination and synthesis of the major fields of knowledge and experience, training for worthy home membership and for the wide use of leisure. Each unit of education took a rank in each aim here reported. The universities were lowest in morality and character training, training for social leadership, coordination and synthesis, manners, mental discipline. The colleges were lowest in command of fundamental processes, attention to individual differences, training in practical subjects. The colleges, further, rank second in knowledge of subject matter, scholarly and scientific attitudes, professional and pre-technical training, cultural development of prospective teachers, training in scientific techniques, coordination and synthesis, research, education of graduate students for the Master's degree. Apparently these colleges "know their aims."

COOPERATION BETWEEN CLAREMONT COLLEGES AND LA VERNE COLLEGE

ANNOUNCEMENT is made that by the combined action of Claremont Colleges, Pomona College, Scripps College and La Verne College the present measure of cooperation which has existed between these institutions will be farther developed in certain ways with the beginning of the coming school year by an arrangement which it is believed will operate to the material advantage of all concerned.

Under this arrangement prepared upper division students of La Verne College will be enabled to enter courses on substantially the same basis as now permits the exchange between Pomona and Scripps, and the institution will thus be relieved of the necessity of duplicating these courses. As a rule, no

exchanges will be made in lower division work. On the other hand, the arrangement will enable the colleges of Claremont to develop some specialized courses which will in due time add to the facilities of the present group of institutions.

Under the terms of this arrangement La Verne College, which now cooperates with the Department of Education in Claremont Colleges, will make Claremont the center of the work in this field. The arrangement will also be to the advantage of the institutions involved in that La Verne College will add its strength to the "Artist Course," which has come to mean so much to this entire region. La Verne will give its students the advantage of admission to the "Artist Course" free of charge, contributing the amount of the payment involved to the additional resourcing of this notable course. In this way, and in other ways, it is believed that material advantages will be gained for the various colleges which participate.

The distance of La Verne College from Claremont, it is felt, is not such as to prevent interchange of students, only ten or fifteen minutes being required for the automobile trip. Classes involving any considerable number of such exchange students will be arranged at as convenient hours as possible, and the class hours and the school years will be brought into accord. On the other hand, the distance which separates the institutions will enable La Verne to maintain its identity and traditions. The arrangement as described is a working agreement between the two colleges and does not at present involve the inclusion of La Verne College in the organized group of Claremont Colleges. If the arrangement should work out satisfactorily such association may develop in the future.

PLAN FOR THE "GREATER UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA"**

THIS plan is now under consideration, being supported by Governor Murray. It is in harmony with the recent trends in the United States toward coordination and concentration in higher education. The Oklahoma plan goes a step farther, however, than any other, in that it proposes an affiliation of the church-related schools as well as the state schools in the program.

* Condensed by the editor from a statement by President Eugene M. Antrim of Oklahoma City University.

The church-related schools will not of course sacrifice their autonomy or self-direction, nor the teaching of those courses which a Christian college should teach, but will derive many advantages from the affiliation. The first of these is that the degrees and diplomas will be issued by the Chancellor of the Greater University of Oklahoma, duly certified by the faculty and trustees of the affiliated colleges. These degrees and diplomas will carry with them the prestige of the best educational standards of the state. It will of course result in the standardization and accreditation of the work done by every participating school.

The assessing of a tuition charge in the state schools, as well as in the private schools is contemplated. It is now almost universally conceded that it is a sound educational principle that the student should share in the cost of his higher education. This will be an immense advantage to Oklahoma, for it is one of the few states where no tuition charge is assessed in the state schools.

This plan, if adopted, will doubtless result in an increased attendance in all of the independent colleges for two reasons: First of all, duplications and overlappings are to be eliminated in the state schools of Oklahoma, which is over-blessed with teachers' colleges and other state educational institutions; and, secondly, the assessment of a tuition charge in the state schools will immediately result in modifying the effect of the enrolment of students in the church-related schools.

The recognition of a stressing of character elements and of non-sectarian religious influence in the whole educational program of the state is revolutionary in character, but it is what we have been striving for in the United States, although ineffectually, for a long time.

THREE is a reduction of only \$40,000 in the budget appropriation for Indiana University for 1933-34 and 1934-35 over the budget of the present year. The appropriation is \$1,490,000. When the appropriation bill was under consideration in the House, amendments to reduce Indiana University's budget \$490,000 a year and Purdue University's budget \$450,000 were offered and were defeated.—*Indiana University Alumni Quarterly*, April, 1933.

CITIZENS' COUNCILS FOR CONSTRUCTIVE ECONOMY

THE formation of a Citizens' Council in every municipality and county to work for the maintenance of essential community services and for constructive economy in local and state government, is proposed in a joint statement issued recently by representatives of forty-three national organizations. The statement follows:

The existence of many public and semi-public community services is threatened. Institutions and activities which have been considered the best evidence of our advanced civilization are being greatly curtailed, and in many places actually discontinued. Taxpayers are demanding cuts. Officials are forced to make them. What can be done about it?

Our answer is: Organize local and state Citizens' Councils to consider the problems of maintaining essential community services in the face of the need for reduction of public expenditures. The objective of such Councils would be to promote interest in local and state governmental problems, to the end that the present widespread demand for reductions may produce actual and permanent improvements in government, the tax system, and the services rendered by public and semi-public agencies.

The local organization proposed will be called a Citizens' Council on Constructive Economy. It will be composed of representatives of local groups interested in good government, such as the League of Women Voters, the Parent-Teacher Association, women's clubs, labor groups, luncheon clubs, chamber of commerce, and other similar groups. It will also include representatives of public and semi-public boards, such as those concerned with schools, libraries, playgrounds, museums, health, welfare, and local colleges and universities. Each Council will be autonomous. Its purpose will be to secure for the public the greatest possible benefit from the expenditure of public funds.

The national organization issuing this statement will ask their members to participate in the formation of local Councils. They will also send to their members suggestions as to how the Councils may carry on their activities.

The Citizens' Council idea grew out of informal conferences in New York, Chicago and Washington, following the Citizens' Conference on the Crisis in Education, called by President Hoover in January. This movement is not, how-

ever, concerned with any particular service. It is an attempt to bring into existence Councils of local organizations interested in all of the services, in good government and in real economy. Misinformation is rampant. It is expected that the first effort of each local Council will be to get the facts about costs and wastes of local government and actual services performed, as well as demands for service, and to pass these facts on to the members of the organizations which the Council represents. When there are recommendations to be made to public authorities, whether for elimination of waste or improvement of a service, Citizens' Councils, in cooperation with constituent citizen groups, will speak for the public at large, with adequate consideration of the city's needs and obligations, and should be able to secure such action as is clearly in the public interest.

A clearing house for information about Citizens' Councils for Constructive Economy will be maintained in the office of the National Municipal League, 309 East 34th Street, New York City.

The complete cost of the legislative, executive, and judicial activities of the federal government absorbs less than two thirds of one per cent. of the total federal outlay. Where, then, you may ask, does all the money go? Well, for one thing, almost three fourths of the total expenditures of the federal government go to pay the costs of our current military establishment and to carry the obligations incurred in past wars. That is to say, of every dollar we pay in taxes to the federal government about 75 cents go into payment for past wars and preparation against future wars. . . . We are trying to balance budgets by cutting the very heart out of the only things that make government a creative social agency. We slash scientific bureaus. We drastically shrink our support of social services. We hamstring our regulatory agencies. We fire visiting nurses. We starve libraries. We reduce hospital staffs. We squeeze education. And we call this economy, and actually think we are intelligent in calling it that. How the gods must be laughing at us! And how our grandchildren will damn us!—*Glenn Frank, President of the University of Wisconsin.*

ASSOCIATED COLLEGES IN THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO

WALTER T. BROWN
PRINCIPAL OF VICTORIA COLLEGE

THE Faculty of Arts of the University of Toronto is the result of a federation of four colleges—University College, Victoria, Trinity and St. Michael's. The first is owned and controlled by the Province of Ontario, the others are denominational colleges under the control of the United (formerly the Methodist), the Anglican and the Roman Catholic Churches respectively. The colleges are teaching bodies; the university is both a teaching and an examining body. The colleges teach part of the curriculum and for the rest the students of all the colleges come together. The original basis of union which has not been strictly adhered to gives to the colleges the humanities and leaves mathematics and the sciences to the university. The former do not require expensive laboratories but rather close contact between student and professor and consequently the division into colleges involves little real duplication of effort. The sciences on the other hand require expensive equipment and the building of one scientific department for all the colleges permits more adequate equipment than any single college can afford and a lowered cost of instruction per student.

The student enrolls in a particular college and that college receives his tuition fee. He or she must also pay a small library fee and an examination fee to the university. While the college has charge of its own methods of teaching and while a certain credit is given for term work the final examination is set by the university and if the student is successful he gets his degree from the university. The examinations, while under the jurisdiction of the Senate and the Faculty of Arts, are directly set by the teaching department. In the case of those departments which are made up of instructors from various colleges the examiner is chosen from one or other of the colleges; usually a system of rotation is used. The papers always receive the approval of the instructors concerned and the student writes under a pseudonym.

Each college is independent. It has its own governing board, it selects its own staff and determines the remuneration of its members and the conditions of their teaching. Each college has

its own system of residences and develops its own societies and its extra-curricular activities in its own way. While there is a main university library, nevertheless each college has a respectable library of its own which it maintains with its own finances. Naturally there is no desire to duplicate books which are not likely to find a large demand. The discipline in a college building or upon the campus of a college is under the control of the college, whilst disciplinary problems involving the students of various colleges and faculties come under the jurisdiction of a caput composed of the president of the university, the deans of the various faculties and the heads of the various colleges.

The Province of Ontario bears the largest financial burden of this federation. It contributes to the university one college and the mathematical, scientific and other studies carried on by the students of all the colleges. While it receives the fees of all students enrolling in University College it charges no tuition fees for the work it does for all the colleges. It operates through an appointed Board of Governors which appoints the president and has charge of the management of the university. This board is independent of the boards of the various colleges and has jurisdiction only over the provincial college and the work done in common.

There is a Council of the Faculty of Arts composed of all members of the instructional staff of professorial rank in the various colleges and in those departments conducted by the university. This body has charge of all the academic work which normally falls to a university faculty. A great deal of the work dealing with the curriculum and examination is carried on by the departments. In the case of college subjects the departments are made up of the instructional staffs of all the colleges and they elect their own chairman and transact their business as any other department.

This system of federation has worked well. It has abolished the older destructive rivalries between the state university and the denominational colleges and has linked all the cooperating bodies in loyalty to a common institution. At the same time it has permitted the colleges to develop their own philosophy of education and to give that supervision to their students which they have deemed advisable.

THE ATLANTA UNIVERSITY AFFILIATION

JOHN HOPE

PRESIDENT OF ATLANTA UNIVERSITY

ON April 1, 1929, an agreement was signed by the presidents of Atlanta University, Morehouse College and Spelman College, acting under authorization of their respective boards of trustees, which provided for the affiliation of the three institutions in a university plan.

At the time this arrangement was made, Atlanta University was a coeducational institution offering normal school and college work; Morehouse College was a college for men, laying particular emphasis on courses in the arts and sciences and including a school of religion; and Spelman College was a liberal arts college for women. The campuses were near together, two of them almost adjoining. There was considerable overlapping and duplication of effort by the three institutions, two of them carrying normal school departments; all three offering undergraduate college work; and each maintaining a high school or academy department.

Under the new arrangement Spelman and Morehouse Colleges do the undergraduate work and Atlanta University has the responsibility, as resources become available, for developing graduate and professional work.

The agreement provided:

1. That Spelman College and Morehouse College should retain their own boards of trustees and officers and management.
2. That the board of trustees of Atlanta University should be reorganized to include three members nominated by Spelman College, three members nominated by Morehouse College and three members of the existing board of Atlanta University to be selected by that board. These nine were given power to elect five additional members.*
3. That the president of Atlanta University should be an ex-officio member of the board of trustees both of Spelman College and of Morehouse College.

* New By-laws adopted in April, 1932, provide that the board of trustees might consist of twenty-one members. At the present time the number of members is twelve.

4. That the president of Morehouse College and the president of Spelman College should be elected by the board of trustees of the college concerned only after consultation with the president of Atlanta University.
5. That before either of the colleges should make faculty appointments, there should be a consultation between its president and the president of Atlanta University.
6. That the University board should have complete control of graduate and professional schools and departments.
7. That the graduate courses offered by the graduate faculty might be supplemented by graduate courses offered by members of the college faculties.
8. That the University board should have the privilege of transmitting reports or recommendations to the respective boards of trustees of the colleges through their presidents; and that through the president of Atlanta University, the University board might call the presidents of the colleges into conference at any time for the discussion of matters of general University interest.
9. That the University board should cooperate where possible with the colleges in securing funds and that no campaign should hereafter be undertaken by either Spelman College or Morehouse College without previous consultation with the University board.
10. That the University board should be charged with the responsibility of developing common facilities which should be available for the various units.
11. That the University board might consider the addition of new colleges or new schools or new departments, but that no other college should be admitted to the agreement without the joint approval of the boards of Morehouse and Spelman Colleges and also the approval of the University board.
12. That Morehouse and Spelman Colleges should not offer graduate and professional instruction but might retain entire control of the moral and religious teaching each might choose to do as part of its undergraduate course, and that each might also maintain courses in pre-professional work acceptable toward a bachelor's degree.

There were further provisions in the agreement which had to do with the transition period while the undergraduate work of

Atlanta University was in the process of being discontinued and the graduate work being developed. The above gives the main features of the plan.

In actual practice, there has been more cooperation among the three institutions than was prescribed. The confidence of each institution in the other two has perhaps had more to do with bringing about the cooperation than the letter of the contract.

The new plan has been in operation nearly four years. The University decided to emphasize on the graduate level a Department of Education including a laboratory school, a Department of Economics and Business Administration, a Department of English and a Department of History. Graduate courses have been offered in the Departments of Biology, Chemistry, Economics, Education, English, French, History, Latin, Mathematics and Sociology. The University supports both graduate and senior-graduate courses. These courses may be offered either by members appointed to the University faculty or by members of the college faculties. The situation with respect to cooperation in curriculum is that Spelman College and Morehouse College each maintains separate courses for the first two college years; in the junior and senior years, the courses offered at one institution are open for election by juniors and seniors enrolled in the other institution. Senior-graduate courses of Atlanta University are open to qualified seniors in the colleges.

Both colleges regard themselves as an essential part of the University, and the University considers its problems as embracing the whole system from nursery school through the graduate department.

There are interchanges of students and teachers and there are teachers employed jointly by the two colleges and by colleges and university.

When the application for accreditation was made last fall to the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the resources of the three institutions were presented in one statement. The three parts make up the total, and Class "A" rating was given to Atlanta University with Spelman and Morehouse as affiliated colleges.

Even with respect to buildings there has been cooperation. The American Baptist Home Mission Society, acting on the re-

quest of the Morehouse trustees, deeded to Atlanta University a piece of land at the east end of its campus on which an administration building has been erected which contains offices for the three institutions. There is a new Atlanta University library which serves the students of the three institutions. It also gives service to other colleges in Atlanta. Spelman College and Morehouse College turned over the books in their respective libraries to the University library. Common facilities are being developed. For example, next year it is planned to have a University bookstore. The bookstore may operate a branch store on the Spelman campus, but it will be a branch and not a separate bookstore as at present.

Morehouse College and Spelman College receive support from the American Baptist Home Mission Society and the Women's American Baptist Home Mission Society, respectively. Atlanta University maintains a friendly relationship with the American Missionary Association and with a number of Congregational churches but for many years has received no direct support from the American Missionary Association. The cooperation between the denominational interests involved has been notably fine.

The affiliation has resulted in a decided strengthening of the three cooperating institutions, individually and collectively. Each has gained much through the pooling of resources, through wider exchanges of courses and of teachers, through greater concentration on those fields which each institution is best fitted to develop. The integrity of the respective institutions has been preserved, so far as organization and management are concerned, but the advantages of united effort are recognized by all. With each group keeping its individuality yet joining forces, with overlapping eliminated, with all facilities utilized, students, teachers, trustees, alumni, and other friends look with enthusiasm to the combined development of these affiliated institutions.

CLAREMONT COLLEGES—ENLARGING PLANS

JAMES A. BLAISDELL

PRESIDENT OF CLAREMONT COLLEGES

CLAREMONT COLLEGES is an independent educational institution of higher learning organized in 1925. Although incorporated as a single institution it carries a plural name as indicating a relation which it maintains to a group of independent but associated colleges at Claremont. As an institution it has authority to carry on its own educational functions. In particular, however, these functions are of a character to serve and supplement in various ways the cooperative life of a group of small colleges, now consisting of two institutions, Pomona College and Scripps College, located in Claremont, California.

INDEPENDENT INSTITUTIONS

The organization of Claremont Colleges is that of a voluntary university association composed of independent and autonomous institutions to which the cooperative life is evidently advantageous. It should be understood, however, that the integrity of the separate undergraduate college is genuine and emphatic.

This close intimacy of the smaller group of students is considered to be of the essential character of the undertaking. Here the undergraduate student finds association with fellow students and instructors. The residential character of the college, the cultural development and the integrity of the separate college body are matters of special concern and insistence. The significance and worth of these relations cannot be overemphasized. Indeed it is believed that no subdivision of students, teachers and faculties less significant than a college itself gives the same loyalty, richness of tradition, intellectual value or essential *esprit de corps*.

On the other hand, the interrelation of the colleges as expressed in their voluntary exchange of educational opportunities and facilities multiplies the privileges which any one college could offer as well as the economies which can thus be effected. Not only are many classes in each college open to students of other colleges, but additional advantages are offered by mutual contribution under the general administration of Claremont Col-

leges, and the size of the combined bodies of students and faculties makes reasonable and possible much more ample facilities than a single small college could well command except at great expense.

GREATER STRENGTH, ECONOMY

As a matter of broad educational policy the building of colleges in groups, as at Claremont, thus assures both greater strength and greater economy than a scattered establishment of these same institutions. For the same amount of investment not only better common facilities, but a greater educational stimulus is created by union.

While Claremont Colleges as a separately incorporated institution has its own board of trustees (the majority of whom are also members of the boards of Pomona or Scripps) and its own appointees, it is organized for internal administration under a general faculty, the membership of which is composed of the few special faculty appointees of Claremont Colleges, together with all full and associate professors of Pomona and Scripps. The general faculty thus represents the growing community of scholars who are serving in the various departments and institutions. While every undergraduate student is registered in one of the undergraduate colleges, all graduate students are registered in the graduate school of Claremont Colleges and are under the oversight of the general faculty. Where teaching service is rendered in the graduate school by members of the faculties of Pomona or Scripps, payment is made to the colleges for such service.

For purposes of internal administration the directing committees of Claremont Colleges are the administrative council and the educational council.

TWO DIRECTING COMMITTEES

The administrative council includes: the president of Claremont Colleges and one representative, the president of Pomona College and one representative, the president of Scripps College and one representative, and the controller of Claremont Colleges, who is also the controller of Pomona and Scripps.

The educational council is appointed by the general faculty and, subject to the general faculty, determines the educational program and procedures.

There is general interchange of educational offerings in the upper years of the undergraduate colleges and also in science, but each college maintains a distinct life of its own—curricula, faculty, students, alumni, etc. All bachelor's degrees are given by the undergraduate colleges; all higher degrees (in course) by the united procedure in Claremont Colleges.

Although the organization of Claremont Colleges is in many respects reminiscent of Oxford and Cambridge, there has been no effort to follow English forms except as they are suggestive under the new conditions. The growth of the organization has been wholly indigenous to the local needs and situation. The problems met are, however, so general in American education and the method of meeting them so unique that this effort to combine the personal intimacies and associations of the small college with the ampler facilities which are usually available only to larger bodies of students, has awakened wide interest and appreciation in the educational world.

NEW AGREEMENT WITH LA VERNE COLLEGE

The Agreement

1. The arrangement herewith entered into shall be publicly described as an arrangement for cooperation between Claremont Colleges and La Verne College. It is understood, however, that this agreement is entered into by these parties with the hope that it may be so mutually satisfactory as to encourage the development of La Verne College ultimately as a unit of the Claremont group.

2. In this arrangement Claremont shall be considered the center of work in Education. Instruction in this field shall be carried on at Claremont unless otherwise assented to by the Department of Education; and while La Verne shall continue for the immediate present to give the elementary certificate at the end of four years, the institution will definitely look forward to eventually requiring five years for this certificate, providing this arrangement still continues at Claremont Colleges.

3. Courses in other fields than Education in the upper years shall be open to La Verne students on a definitely restricted basis, involving—

- a. number which can be admitted
- b. scholastic and subject preparation
- c. courses not offered by La Verne College

As a rule no exchanges should be made in lower division work. And no La Verne student shall take more than two-fifths of his work at any given time in any other colleges of the group.

4. For purposes of convenience in this cooperation, La Verne shall bring its college calendar and class hours into such accord with the hours at Claremont as shall serve the interests of all parties, and La Verne shall maintain an information office or offices for certain hours on or near the campus of Claremont Colleges.

5. La Verne College shall pay \$10.00 per hour for any student taking work in Pomona College or Scripps College, and shall be entitled to the same rates in the Department of Music of Pomona College as are now or may be granted to Scripps College.

6. For purposes of assuring an efficiently high standard of work, entrance conditions shall be made a matter of frank comparison between the institutions. The financial accounts of each institution shall be open to the Presidents of the other institutions and to Controllers of Claremont Colleges and La Verne College.

7. It is hoped by La Verne College that an even exchange can be made in the matter on instruction in the Department of Education for the year 1933-34, and in case such an exchange can be arranged, La Verne will give its students advantage of the Artist Course free of charge, the student fee to be paid to the Business Office of Claremont Colleges by La Verne College.

8. It is recognized that the financial situation of La Verne makes it impossible to share in all the common undertakings of Claremont Colleges (*e.g.*, the Infirmary and Health Service), and that the goal of full association involves such participation. On the other hand, Claremont Colleges will use its good offices in such ways as are possible without added expense.

9. It is the understanding that the Claremont Colleges plan contemplates a group of residence colleges. Manifestly the largest advantage is in a contiguous location. It is recognized, however, that any plans for the relocation of La Verne's residence plant must wait on practical experience.

10. The President of La Verne and one representative shall have access to the Administrative Council at such times and for such purposes as may serve the common end.

CONSOLIDATIONS IN ARKANSAS

J. H. REYNOLDS

PRESIDENT OF HENDRIX COLLEGE

UP to 1929 the Methodists in Arkansas operated three senior colleges—Hendrix, a co-educational standard senior college at Conway, Henderson-Brown, a co-educational non-standard senior college at Arkadelphia, and Galloway, a non-standard senior woman's college at Searcy. In 1927 the authorities wishing to unify through correlation or consolidation, created a commission to study the college situation. This movement resulted in 1929 in the complete merger of Henderson-Brown with Hendrix at Conway as one college, the property at Arkadelphia being turned over to the people of the city as compensation for withdrawal.

In 1931 Galloway Woman's College was made a junior college for girls, the junior and senior years being transferred to Hendrix and the administration of Galloway placed under the president and business manager of Hendrix. Separate corporations were maintained but with the same personnel. The colleges are fifty miles apart, and some teachers go back and forth. December 22, 1932, the authorities directed that at the end of the current school year Galloway should cease to operate as a junior college at Searcy, and should be merged with Hendrix at Conway.

Clean-Cut. These consolidations are clean-cut, carrying over to the senior institution at Conway no financial obligations from the other two schools, but bringing to it the alumni and clientele of all three institutions. Henderson-Brown has been liquidated and the net assets have been turned over to Hendrix College. It will take time to liquidate Galloway. The alumni and former students of all three colleges become alumni and former students of Hendrix College, and the alumni organization now includes the alumni of the three colleges. Friction has largely disappeared. Graduates of Henderson-Brown and Galloway, non-standard colleges, are privileged to enter Hendrix and make up the difference and receive the bachelor's degree from Hendrix College.

In order to preserve separate financial responsibility of the three colleges, the corporation of each was kept intact and preserved until the closed institution was liquidated. A basic principle running through all documents was that no one institution would be financially liable for the obligations of another.

The records of Henderson-Brown and Galloway Colleges are preserved in the archives of Hendrix College, and the latter institution is regarded as the successor of all three colleges.

The constituencies of the three colleges have accepted the consolidation and for the most part are loyal to the new order of things. The success of the mergers has been due in part to the able leadership, including that of the resident bishop of the church, Harvey C. Couch, now a member of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation and president of the Board of Trustees, and other outstanding men. The fact that these men sanctioned what was done secured for it wide acceptance.

Results. The consolidation has impressed the state with the statesmanship of those back of the college, has added much to its prestige, has brought it the confidence of business people and leaders of thought everywhere. It has helped to tide the central college over the depression by keeping up the attendance. In the midst of the depression, Hendrix College built and dedicated in 1931 a science hall worth a quarter of a million dollars.

The success of the consolidation is stimulating a similar movement among other denominations in the state. It has had a powerful influence especially in Methodist circles throughout the South, and mergers and consolidations are going on, copying after the Arkansas plan.

Our experience shows that while there are advantages in federation where colleges are fifty miles apart through reducing overhead expenses, they are nothing compared to the advantages of complete consolidation on one campus and under one administration.

THE MILLSAPS SYSTEM OF COLLEGES

D. M. KEY

PRESIDENT OF MILLSAPS COLLEGE

THE Millsaps System of Colleges was created by the action of the joint meeting of the board of trustees of Whitworth College, the board of trustees of Grenada College, and the board of trustees of Millsaps College, and the Board of Christian Education of the North Mississippi Conference and the Board of Education of the Mississippi Conference at a session in Jackson, Mississippi, on March 30, 1932. The following outline was officially approved at this time.

Unified System.—There shall be a unified system of administration for the colleges of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, in the Mississippi and North Mississippi Annual Conferences of said Church to be known as *The Millsaps System of Colleges*, said system to be composed of Millsaps College, Jackson, Mississippi; Grenada College, Grenada, Mississippi; and Whitworth College, Brookhaven, Mississippi.

Status of Institutions.—(a) Millsaps College shall continue to be operated as a Standard College; provided, that young women who are non-residents of Jackson, Mississippi, may not enter the freshman or sophomore classes.

(b) Grenada College shall be operated as a Junior College for Women; said status to become operative after the close of the 1931-1932 session, provided, that the alumnae roll of Grenada College shall be published in the Millsaps catalog supplementary to the Millsaps Alumni roll.

(c) Whitworth College shall be operated as a Junior College for Women.

Administration.—(a) The Millsaps System of Colleges (Millsaps College, Grenada College, and Whitworth College) shall be operated by the board of trustees of Millsaps College, which board shall elect a president of the Millsaps System of Colleges who shall be the president of Millsaps College, Jackson, Mississippi; president of Grenada College, Grenada, Mississippi; and president of Whitworth College, Brookhaven, Mississippi. The aforesaid board of trustees of Millsaps College, Jackson, Missis-

sippi, shall perform all the duties and have all the rights in connection with each of the three colleges, as are usually exercised by trustees of such institutions, except where herein otherwise provided.

(b) The board of trustees of Millsaps College shall elect a dean, members of the faculty and other employees of Grenada College; provided that the board of trustees of Grenada College may appoint a committee of three of its members who shall have the privilege of sitting with the board of trustees of Millsaps College, while said board considers such, and have the right to vote upon the election of the above mentioned persons.

(c) The board of trustees of Millsaps College shall elect a dean, members of the faculty and other employees of Whitworth College; provided, that the board of trustees of Whitworth College may appoint a committee of three of its members who shall have the privilege of sitting with the board of trustees of Millsaps College, while said board considers such, and have the right to vote upon the election of the above mentioned persons.

Property.—(a) The present board of trustees of Grenada College and/or their successors who shall be chosen by the North Mississippi Conference shall hold the title to the property of Grenada College *in trust* for the North Mississippi Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South.

(b) Millsaps College property shall continue to be held and managed as at present.

(c) The present board of trustees of Whitworth college and/or their successors who shall be chosen by the Mississippi Annual Conference shall hold the title to the property of Whitworth College, *in trust*, for the Mississippi Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South.

(d) Any financial expenditures made upon the properties at Grenada College or Whitworth College by the board of trustees of Millsaps College *without* the approval of their respective board of trustees shall be a liability of the board of trustees of Millsaps College.

Finances.—(a) The board of trustees of Millsaps College shall be responsible for the management of all the financial affairs in connection with the operation of Grenada College and the upkeep of its property; provided, that in determining the salaries

of the dean, faculty members, and other employees the committee of three of the board of trustees of Grenada College as provided for in Section III par. (b) Shall have the right to vote in fixing said salary schedule.

(b) This plan involves no change in the *financial affairs* of Millsaps College.

(c) The board of trustees of Millsaps College shall be responsible for the management of all the financial affairs in connection with the operation of Whitworth College and the upkeep of its property; provided, that in determining the salaries of the dean, faculty members, and other employees the committee of three of the board of trustees of Whitworth College as provided for in Section III par. (c) Shall have a right to vote in fixing said salary schedule.

(d) All indebtedness against Grenada College at the close of the 1931-1932 session and whatever indebtedness may accrue in the operation of Grenada College under provisions of this plan thereafter shall be a liability against the property of Grenada College; and, the liquidation of the present or future indebtedness of Grenada College shall be the responsibility of the board of trustees of Grenada College who are the agents of the North Mississippi Annual Conference.

(e) All indebtedness against Whitworth College at the close of the 1931-1932 session shall be adjusted by the board of trustees of Millsaps College and the board of trustees of Whitworth College, as to the distribution or placement of liability; and in the event said boards of trustees are unable to agree then the matter shall be referred to the 1932 session of the Mississippi and North Mississippi Annual Conferences for determination.

All indebtedness which may accrue in the operation of Whitworth College under the operation of this plan after the close of the 1931-1932 session and whatever amount of the indebtedness accrued prior to the close of the 1931-1932 session is assumed, if any, by the board of trustees of Whitworth College, shall be a liability against the property of Whitworth College; and the liquidation of the indebtedness against Whitworth College shall be the responsibility of the trustees of Whitworth College, who are the agents of the Mississippi Annual Conference.

(f) *Endowments:* Whatever endowment is owned by each of the three colleges of the Millsaps System of Colleges shall continue in their respective boards of trustees; provided, however, that the endowment of Millsaps College, Jackson, Mississippi, shall in nowise be involved by the operation of this plan, nor shall any part of its endowment be diverted from the use for which it was given; and provided further, that the income from Grenada College's endowment and Whitworth College's endowment shall be deposited with the treasurer of the board of trustees of Millsaps College to be used in the operation of their respective institutions.

(g) All the income derived from the operation of the three colleges of the Millsaps System of Colleges shall be the property of the board of trustees of Millsaps College; provided, the receipts derived from Grenada College shall be used for operative expense at Grenada College, and the receipts from Whitworth College shall be used for operative expense at Whitworth College.

Special Provisions.—(a) If in the operation of this plan it develops that Grenada College has a deficit that embarrasses its further operation; and/or the liquidation of its indebtedness is so retarded as to embarrass the successful operation of the college, it shall be the duty of the board of trustees of Millsaps College to report the facts to the North Mississippi Annual Conference and request said Conference to authorize and direct the board of trustees of Grenada College to liquidate Grenada College and apply the net proceeds from all sources to the education of women at Millsaps College, Jackson, Mississippi; provided that all endowment funds and other trust funds that may exist after all debts are liquidated shall be given to the board of trustees of Millsaps College in trust to be used for education of women at the other junior college in the system as long as that college exists as a member of the system; and in the event such discontinuance of Grenada College be not authorized then the provisions of this plan as involving the administration and operation of Grenada College become null and void.

(b) If in the operation of this plan it develops that Whitworth College has a deficit that embarrasses its further operation; and/or the liquidation of its indebtedness is so retarded as to embarrass the successful operation of the college, it shall be the duty of the

board of trustees of Millsaps College to report the facts to the Mississippi Annual Conference and request said conference to authorize and direct the board of trustees of Whitworth College to liquidate Whitworth College and apply the net proceeds from all sources to the education of women at Millsaps College, Jackson, Mississippi; provided that all endowment funds and other trust funds that may exist after all debts are liquidated shall be given to the board of trustees of Millsaps College in trust to be used for education of women at the other junior college in the system as long as that college exists as a member of the system; and in the event such discontinuance of Whitworth College be not authorized then the provisions of this plan as involving the administration and operation of Whitworth College become null and void.

(c) The board of trustees of Millsaps College shall not borrow money for the operation of Grenada College or the operation of Whitworth College.

In adoption of this report it is specifically understood that the trustees of Grenada College are solely responsible for providing funds for operation of said Junior College under this plan; and that the trustees of Whitworth College are solely responsible for providing funds for operation of Whitworth Junior College; provided, that in the event that Grenada or Whitworth boards of trustees are unable to provide said funds, then Millsaps trustees shall have no responsibility in the administration and operation of such institution as fails to have provided adequate funds by its said board of trustees.

On the side of the personal development of students four trends have recently been found within the liberal college, not distinct in practice but distinctly statable, and it is believed that these trends are in the direction of improved college theory and practice. They are: (a) "toward a less vocational objective, (b) a greater correlation of knowledge, (c) a recognition of the principle of self-education and (d) the stimulation of more vivid intellectual interests."—(Quoted from A. Lawrence Lowell.)

MORE AND BETTER WILLS

ONE hundred people attended the Conference in Brooklyn, New York, March 21-22, which discussed the theme of making wills,—of making more wills (everybody doing it!) and better wills,—more adequate in scope, more exact in phrasing and more flexible in order to fit changing conditions, both of the present and of the future.

Over two hundred copies of the proposed volume to be published, which will contain the papers and abstracts from the discussions, were subscribed for before even the price was known.

Now it can be announced that the booklet is published, in harmony with current price levels, in two editions,—the cloth at \$1.00 a single copy and additional copies ordered at the same time, at 75 cents a copy,—the paper at 75 cents a single copy and additional copies ordered at the same time, at 50 cents a copy, postpaid. The persons who shared in this Conference and its discussions and approved its deliverances so heartily, represented almost every form of charitable institution, all the way from Idaho on the West and Florida on the South; from colleges and universities; Bible and Tract Societies; the Church Boards of Missions, Pensions, Education, Hospitals and Young People; the Christian Associations, Children's Aid Societies, Welfare Bureaus, Mental Hygiene, Probation, Boy Scouts, Boys' Clubs, Youth Movements, and Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.

That which is sound in finance and trustworthy in fiduciary relations is non-sectarian and universal, applicable to every form of altruistic service. No special sect nor particular charitable organization has a monopoly of, nor can make a corner in, integrity of administration and economic soundness,—wisdom and honesty are needed by all, applicable to all, indispensable for all. Wisdom and honesty are needed in this present time as much as,—if not more than,—at any time in the world's history. This little book, *More and Better Wills*, is dedicated to sound wisdom and undeviating integrity.

Copies may be procured by addressing the Committee on Financial and Fiduciary Matters, 105 East 22nd Street, New York, N. Y., or from the Association office.—A.W.A.

A CAMPAIGN FOR WILL-MAKING*

GILBERT T. STEPHENSON

VICE PRESIDENT, EQUITABLE TRUST COMPANY, WILMINGTON, DELAWARE

NEED FOR A WILL

ALL that has been said about the need for a will may be summed up in these words of Daniel S. Remsen of the New York Bar:

Civilization permits you and me to make a private law for the disposition of our property after death. We call that private law our last will and testament. In that instrument we can legislate for the good or ill of our families and of our estates. We may legislate cautiously, prudently, and wisely. If we fail to do so, however, we shall not personally suffer, but the suffering caused by us will fall to the lot of those we love.

NEED FOR A CAMPAIGN

Americans as a people are not yet will-conscious as compared with the people of other countries. A study of the estates in process of settlement in North Carolina shows that slightly more than one fourth are being settled under will. A similar study for Ohio shows that not quite one half of them are being settled under will. A study for New Castle County, Delaware, in which the City of Wilmington is located, shows that, year after year, almost precisely one half of the estates are being settled under will. Strange to say, in New Castle County the proportion of people who have died recently without wills is greater than those who died without wills seventy-five years ago. In Queens County, New York, in 1932, slightly less than one-half the property owners who died left wills—1,576 left wills and 1,637 did not.

Statistics gathered here and there over the country seem to justify the estimate that, taking the cities of the United States alone, about one half of the estates arising in them are being settled under will, and taking the country as a whole, rural

* From *More and Better Wills*, edited by Alfred Williams Anthony, New York, N. Y.

districts as well as cities, about one estate out of four is being settled under will.

In 1929 four fifths of the estates in England based on analysis of 1,000 estates taken in order were being settled under will. One solicitor, who has had much experience in the administration of estates, suggests that even more than four fifths of the English property-owners make wills. "In my experience," he says, "among clients for whom we and people like ourselves act, an intestacy is rather a rarity. In fact, I should say that the proportion would be more like one in twenty or even less as compared with the one in five which you have got from your figures." On this point also an English barrister and trust man says,

Public opinion here for many years has been inclined to regard a man who fails to make a will as having been definitely careless in regard to his affairs and provision for his family. It has long been "the correct thing" to make a will. Society expects John Citizen to make a will and, if questioned, John will invariably agree that he ought to do so.

The proportion of property-owners in France who make wills is quite as high as it is in England and this despite the fact that most of the French wills are holographic and that under the Code Napoleon French men and women of family may dispose of only a comparatively small part of their estates.

If it is true that three fourths of the property-owners of the United States die without wills, is it not correct to say that there is need of a campaign for will-making?

PARTICIPANTS IN CAMPAIGN

Any campaign for will-making, if it is to be successful, must have the active support of the bar, of the trust institutions, and of the press and, to a less extent only, of the clergy and medical profession. Each of these great national groups has its distinctive contribution to make toward the success of such a campaign.

The Bar.—So far as the bar is concerned, it is not suggested even that it should engage in any active campaign for will-making, for that would be wholly contrary to the ethics of the profession. But the bar should be apprised of the fact that one

of the strongest deterrents to the making of wills is the very general reluctance on the part of people, who do not have regularly retained counsel, voluntarily to consult lawyers. Part of this reluctance is due to the dread of discussing a matter that in the mind of the average man is so closely associated with death. Part of it is due to the natural disinclination of so many people to consult professional men, whether lawyers or doctors or clergymen. Part of it is due to a misapprehension that in order to make a will one must make a complete disclosure of the affairs of his estate and of his family and completely itemize his property. There still prevails in the minds of some people the notion that a will once made cannot be changed and that it must at once be recorded and become a public document. Some of the real reluctance is traceable also to the uncertainty as to the fee for writing a will and rumors, however groundless, of large fees having been charged. It is not the province of this address to suggest to the bar ways and means of overcoming this reluctance. Suffice it now to say that it does exist and that, in so far as possible, it must be removed before any campaign of will-making can be a complete success.

Trust Institutions.—Trust institutions, being business enterprises, may advertise their services and solicit business with the same right and propriety as any other business enterprise may do so. They may, therefore, advertise in all proper ways that they are engaged in the business of settling estates under will. They may present their services through personal representatives. In their advertisements and promotional literature and in their personal representations, they may discuss the need one has for making a will, the disadvantages of dying without will, and the services offered by trust institutions as executors and trustees.

Trust institutions may well make their advertisements and their literature distinctly educational rather than purely promotional. During the last year a number of the leading banking institutions have adopted the admirable practice of using both advertising space and promotional literature to educate their readers on the principles and practices of sound commercial banking. A similar course may well be adopted by trust institutions in making their advertisements and promotional literature informative as well as promotional.

The Press.—In a successful campaign for will-making the press must have an influential part. Its news columns are always open for interesting items about wills. But one doubts whether the curious and unusual items about wills—and such items alone are news, except in connection with the wills of well known persons—have a persuasive force upon readers to make their own wills.

The chief contribution of the press to a successful campaign for will-making rests largely in editorials and special articles. There are social aspects of wills which, it would seem, amply justify editorials from time to time mentioning and emphasizing the importance to property-owners of making wills and of giving their best thought to and taking the best obtainable advice in making good wills. Magazine articles of human interest, stressing the human rather than the technical side, should be of real interest to general readers.

Physicians and Clergymen.—Two other groups that may promote a campaign for will-making are physicians and clergymen. Without their seeking it, they are continually besought to give information and advice about wills. While they, themselves, should not ever, except in a case of dire extremity, attempt actually to prepare a will, they should know enough about the distribution of property where there is no will and about the advantages that may be obtained under a will to satisfy those who seek their advice on the importance of making well-considered and carefully prepared wills.

POINTS OF EMPHASIS

Certain social aspects of wills concern the community or the state or the nation, quite apart from the value of a will to the immediate family of the dependents of the testator. In a campaign for will-making, these social aspects may be emphasized.

Provision for Property-Owners' Dependents.—The community is entitled to have its citizens provide for their families and dependents. St. Paul was speaking as an economist rather than as an evangelist when he said that a person who does not provide for his own household is worse than an infidel. Furthermore, provision for one's household means a great deal more than the division of property among the members of that household. In

some cases it means leaving property outright; in other cases, it means leaving it in trust; in some cases, trusteeing it for a limited or specified time; in others, for life. It means adapting the uses of property to the special needs of the beneficiaries.

Judgment of Property-Owner.—The community is also entitled to have the benefit of the best judgment of its property-owners as to the disposition of their property at death. The fact that one has been able by his own industry and initiative to accumulate, retain, use and enjoy, and dispose of property is in itself evidence that he is a person of judgment. The fact that one has been able to retain property received outright by gift or inheritance is also some evidence that he is a person of some judgment. Inasmuch as the proper disposition of property promotes the general welfare of the community, society is entitled to the exercise of judgment of the property-owner as to the disposition of his own property.

Community's Contribution to Property Values.—The community may reasonably expect that a portion of an estate over and above the needs of the family or dependents will be dedicated to public uses. A very large part of the value of one's property is contributed by the community in which it is located. Remove the churches, schools, hospitals, libraries, and other public institutions from a community, and property values will immediately depreciate or vanish. If one were thinking solely of maintaining the value of property that he passed on to the next generation, he would be practicing good economy if he dedicated a portion of that property to the uses of the public institutions of the community in which it is located.

If the community is entitled to a portion of one's estate over and above the requirements of his family and dependents, it is entitled also to receive it in the most usable form. Experience over the centuries in English speaking countries has shown conclusively that property left for public institutions under inelastic trusts frequently, and one is justified in saying, usually fails to serve its purpose. Social and economic conditions change so rapidly that institutions, agencies, and objects of a public character are, themselves, constantly changing. This fact has necessitated the establishment of both private and public foundations and community trusts and agencies that permit the change of

application of the gift from time to time to meet the ever changing needs of society. A public spirited citizen in leaving a portion of his property to the community that has enabled him to accumulate or retain his property and has contributed so largely to the value of it, should also make it possible for that community to use his gift to the best advantage.

Among the public institutions and agencies that should share in the distribution of estates are those founded or sponsored by the church and dedicated to the purposes of religion. Such are colleges, hospitals, orphanages, and mission enterprises of all sorts. Gifts to these, the same as gifts to other public institutions and causes, should be made on terms elastic enough to permit adaptation to the ever changing needs of the church and its agencies and also of the human needs that it serves.

The claim of the church to share in the disposition of estates is founded on the eternal principle that morality and religion are inseparably related as expressed by Washington in his Farewell Address:

Morality is a necessary spring of popular government . . . And let us with caution indulge the supposition that morality can be maintained without religion. Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure, reason and experience both forbid us to expect, that national morality can prevail in exclusion of religious principles.

Even as the first President in his Farewell Address recognized that religion and morality are the essential pillars of civilization, so our present President in his inaugural address reiterated a doctrine that applies equally to nations and citizens, and to its citizens in the use of their property during their lifetime and to the disposition of it at their death—namely, the Christian doctrine that our destiny is “not to be ministered unto but to minister” to ourselves and to our fellow men.

LOSSES THROUGH FAILURE TO MAKE WILLS*

CRAIG R. SMITH

ASSISTANT SECRETARY, CENTRAL HANOVER BANK AND TRUST COMPANY
NEW YORK CITY

I. INTESTACY—RESULTS

HERE are usually three important matters to be provided for in drafting a will: (a) An executor is named; (b) property is distributed, and (c) trusts are established. Let us examine briefly these three things and see *why* they are so important, and what results are apt to follow when no will is made, or when a will is made and any one of them is omitted.

(a) *Naming an Executor.* A man of property dies without a will. He has varied interests. What happens? In all probability the Surrogate will appoint his wife administrator of his estate. When this is suggested to a man who has made no will he is apt to say, "Fine, my wife is capable. She can manage all right." But can she? Well, if her husband has been in business, she will need an executive to carry it on or to liquidate it. To probate his will she will require an attorney. For tax returns, Federal estate, New York estate, two income taxes, property taxes, and perhaps others, she will need a tax man. If he owned real estate, beside his home, she may need a real estate man. She needs an appraiser for tax purposes—certainly some one to advise her on investments. We cannot doubt that all these problems are quite remote from the daily routine of the average woman.

Would any sane man go on a trip for even six months without making most careful provision to take care of the heavy responsibilities he is leaving behind him? Is he then willing to go away for all time without making any provision at all for the far heavier responsibilities involved in his permanent absence? Could he do a greater injustice to his wife and family?

Probate is said to be nothing more than the liquidation of an estate and usually it must be completed within a year. You know as well as I the losses than are likely to be incurred in

* From *More and Better Wills*, edited by Alfred Williams Anthony, New York, N. Y.

liquidation if the management is not of the best. The making of a will is the only way in which a man may name an executor or manager of his estate who can conserve the assets as well as distribute them.

(b) *Distribution of Property.* As you all know, if a man leaves no will, the State of New York distributes his property for him in accordance with the laws of descent and distribution. Some men say, "All right, the law suits me," and many really believe it will until they learn the truth. And sometimes they never do learn the truth—to the irreparable loss of those whom they would most like to benefit.

Under the intestacy laws, as you undoubtedly know, property passes, generally speaking, first to the wife and children; if there are none, to the parents; and if none of these survive, to brothers and sisters, uncles and aunts, nieces and nephews. These laws are simple enough of statement. In practice, however, they are involved, and the developments are likely to be very unexpected and equally undesired by those most interested.

I remember in Detroit a few years ago a young woman dressed in black, coming into my office. She said her husband had died a few weeks previously. He had told her that he wanted her to get everything he owned but, unfortunately, after his death, they could find no will and his two brothers, who were not at all friendly to her, claimed one-half of all his property. Could we do anything for her? I felt very keenly the injustice involved but could only tell her that the laws of descent and distribution, in the absence of a will, governed the disposition of the property, and the wishes of her husband and herself went for nothing—then. But, how do you think her husband would have felt if he could have looked back and seen the distress his lack of foresight caused his widow?

A man I know recently said he had little left since the decline in security values except his house in Westchester County, a beautiful home, which he said was worth \$65,000 even in these times. He had no children. He said that he didn't have to make a will because, being happily married, he had put the property in his wife's name. But when he learned that, although he had bought and paid for the house with his own money, should his wife die before him the house would probably

have to be sold and all that he would receive would be \$35,000 and that his wife's mother and father, who were already well-to-do, would receive the balance of \$30,000, he quickly came to the conclusion that his wife must make her will. He saw the other side of the picture. If women could learn the truth about their side of intestacy as this man did about his, I think a good many husbands would be calling on their attorneys tomorrow to have their wills prepared.

To illustrate further. A young man kneeling at the altar murmurs in low voice, "With all my wordly goods I thee endow." But two years later, not having found time to make a will, he dies suddenly, leaving his young wife a widow with a year old son. His property divided according to the laws of New York State goes one-third to the mother, and two-thirds to the infant son. The mother, although appointed guardian for her son, has to account regularly for the principal and income of her son's share of the property and when he reaches the age of twenty-one must give him full possession and control. Does any one think the man would arrange it that way if he could do it over again? Only by making a will can you distribute your property as you would like to have it distributed.

Time does not permit me to multiply these illustrations but before we leave this point, I think it is fair to remind those of you who are interested in philanthropy, that if there is no will there is nothing for philanthropy, and that no part of any estate ever goes to social service, or education, or church, except by will.

(c) *Establishment of Trusts.* The third important step which is often taken in the making of wills is the establishment of testamentary trusts. Only by making a will can you leave any part of your estate in trust. A man says to me, "I have \$500,000. I want to leave it outright to my wife because I feel that it is as much hers as it is mine. She can enjoy it while she lives and then pass it on to our children." I might say, "I appreciate exactly how you feel, but I wonder if you realize that under that plan your children will eventually receive from your estate not \$500,000—but \$383,000. In other words, there will be approximately \$117,000 which will not go to your children but will go to individuals or agencies about which you care nothing."

"The reason for so heavy a shrinkage is this. As you know, before your wife can actually receive your property it has to pass through probate and will be subject to certain expenses, such as Federal and New York estate taxes, executors' and legal fees. Then, if your wife dies a few years later, whatever part of your estate is left at her death must again go through the courts and is again subjected to the same expenses that were incurred in the first instance when the property passed from you to your wife. This duplication of expenses results, as I have said, in a shrinkage of approximately \$117,000 in your estate, or 23 per cent of its original value, before it gets into the hands of your children.

"Now, on the other hand, by a simple change in your will you can accomplish the same ultimate result—which is to give your wife full enjoyment of your property while she lives, and then have it go to your children—and at the same time practically eliminate this duplication of expense. To do this you would merely have to change your will to make it read something like this: 'I want everything I have to go into a fund, from which my wife receives the income as long as she lives and when she dies it is to go to my children.' If this simple change is made in your will, your property would go through Probate Court only once and the total taxes and administration expenses would approximately \$72,000—instead of \$117,000."

In other words, he saves over \$45,000 to his estate by the trust plan, and if he is careful in the terms of his trust and the selection of his trustee, the chances are that his family will be better off by even more than that amount—because it has repeatedly been said, by people who should know, that the greatest loss in estates occurs after settlement due to the lack of experienced and capable management of the property. So I say, by making a will providing for the creation of a well-considered trust, you can distribute your property most economically and you can leave to your wife something more than money; something which is often more valuable than money, call it judgment, experience, or what you will.

II. INTESTACY—PREVENTION

We are told on good authority that the majority of men and women die intestate—without a will. I do not wish to dispute

the authorities—probably the statement is true if we include *all* men and women. If, however, we limit our consideration to the people who are worth considerably more than the average—say the 10 per cent of the people in this country who own 70 per cent of its wealth—I do not think the statement would be true.

How many of *these* men die without some sort of will? Not so many, I dare say. It is rarely we hear of a man of wealth dying without leaving a will. Therefore, in talking to people of this class, the emphasis should be laid, not on the mere making of a will, but the making of an *adequate* will. That word "adequate" is very important—so important that I think it should be included in our title, which would then read, "Losses Through Failure to Make Adequate Wills." By an adequate will, I mean a will that disposes of the property involved with due consideration as to the best way to conserve the property itself and the welfare of those to whom it is left.

A man of large means who boasts that his plans are adequate because he has drawn a simple will and has left everything outright to his wife, naming her executrix, has not in most cases—and I am sure you will agree with me in this—appointed the best manager for his estate. Further, instead of relieving his wife of the burden of the management of his property, he has placed it squarely on her shoulders, and he has not followed the safest and most economical method of transferring his property to his children.

If this is so, why is it that men and women fail to make adequate wills? Out of the many reasons which will occur to you, I should like in the time remaining to me discuss a few which seem to me the most important.

(a) *Lack of Information.* The first reason is the wide-spread ignorance as to what happens to property when there is no will, ignorance as to the best way to plan the disposal of an estate, and the way to dispel this doubt and to supply the needed information is through education. This conference, I believe, is a very significant step in the right direction.

What are the general facilities for the education of the public in this important matter? The one *best* able to advise—the attorney—may perhaps hesitate to suggest to his client that he make a will. The ethics of his profession forbid him to solicit

business. Perhaps it is also true that many men go to their attorney and tell him how they wish their wills prepared and their property distributed, and perhaps they not only do not ask his advice as to the best way in which their wishes can be carried out, but, by their attitude, make their attorney feel that it would be presumptuous of him to offer any suggestions.

Next to the attorneys, we have life insurance men and trust companies as the most likely sources from which suggestions for will-making may come. Do not let us underrate the work of the life underwriters in this connection. The able and experienced insurance man has to know a good deal about wills, estates and trusts. He knows what happens to an individual's property in the event he dies without making a will. When we remember the thousands of people they interview each day we begin to realize their importance from the educational standpoint.

Perhaps even more important factors in this educational program are the trust companies and banks doing trust business. Being free, as are any other companies doing business for profit, to advertise and solicit business, they are spending hundreds of thousands of dollars each year in New York City alone in the attempt to convince people of the importance of making proper wills.

The trust officer does not draw wills or give legal advice. This is the function of the attorney. He is rather concerned with the human side of this business. He talks with many men about their estate plans. He sees the plans of other men actually carried out. He sees at first hand, the dangers to be avoided in making a will and the advantages that may be gained by making an adequate will. He is in a position to study the ideas able men develop and utilize for themselves so that he may pass on this information to others.

Such information extends to every phase of estate planning, but nowhere to more advantage than in the field of philanthropic giving. Mr. Rosenwald said, not a great while before his death, "I can testify that it is nearly always easier to make one million dollars honestly than to dispose of it wisely"; not as you will observe merely to dispose of it—any one can do that—but dispose of it *wisely*. So difficult has this matter proved to be that my

own institution has established a department—the Department of Philanthropic Information—for the express purpose of helping those who wish to give or leave their money to philanthropic purposes and to do so most effectively. That, however, is another story and I must take up the second important reason why men postpone the making of their wills.

(b) *Reluctance to Act.* My second answer to the question, "Why do not more men make adequate wills?" is concerned not so much with facts as with emotions. Men fail to make wills because of inertia, because of procrastination. Here we are contending not with facts but with human nature. We can educate with logic and argument. To get action we must appeal to sentiment. By quoting facts we can gain a man's intellectual consent but some emotional stimulus is almost always necessary to induce him to put his convictions into immediate practice. Education and appeal supplement each other here, neither can work alone.

I wonder how many of us realize how great a part our emotions play in the many decisions we make from day to day! A striking illustration of the use of sentiment as a deciding factor is the story told in the *Saturday Evening Post* of how Joseph P. Day sold the building at 71 Broadway to the United States Steel Corporation. Negotiations had been going on for some time and the details of the sale had all been worked out but Judge Gary, who was then Chairman of the Board, was still hesitating, he could not make up his mind.

Finally one day, during an interview, Mr. Day asked two questions, the answers to which he already knew.

"Judge," he said, "where was your first office when you came to New York from Chicago?"

"Right here where you and I are sitting, Day."

"So it was in this building, in this very room then, that the greatest industry in the world was born?"

"That question," as Mr. Day tells it in the *Saturday Evening Post*, "he never answered. He sat tipped back in his chair, gazing out on the view he had seen for so many years, and for the next five minutes you could have heard a pin drop. Suddenly his chair legs came down with a bang."

"'That settles it,' he said. 'I started in this building seventeen years ago. It was good enough for me than and, by Jove,

it's good enough for me now! Get your men here at once, Day, and we'll close the deal this afternoon.'

"Thus by an appeal to sentiment—was accomplished in five minutes of silence, what five weeks of argument might not have consummated."

If emotional considerations play so large a part in purely business transactions such as the purchase of an office building, how much more must they count when a man is considering the future of his family—perhaps the most vital to him of all matters. We cannot doubt that emotions are among the most potent influences in overcoming the procrastination and inertia that so often stand in the way of the actual making of a will.

III. INTESTACY VS. TESTAMENTARY DISPOSITION

We have talked about what happens when there is no will. Now let us look at the other side of the picture. I wish you could sit with me and hear from his own lips the estate plan of a man who has really thought about it. I have in mind such a man, and here is what he said.

"I want above all to see that my wife is taken care of as long as she lives, and so I am arranging in my will that the property goes into a fund from which she gets the income for life, and, if she should need it, she can get a portion of the principal to carry her through any emergency. After my wife dies, I want what is left in this fund to go to my children. As for my son —when he is twenty-one I hope he will still be in school. I don't want him to get any of the principal then. If he is anything like I was, when he graduates he will be very optimistic and ready to tackle anything. I think I'll let him have one-third of his share when he is twenty-five years old. He may lose it but the experience which he will gain by having had it, I believe, may be worth more to him than the money itself. When he is thirty I hope he will be happily married and settled down and I will give him another third of his share then, and by the time he is thirty-five when he will be mature, if he is ever going to be, I will give him the remainder of his share and I feel sure that he will be able to handle it wisely by that time.

"But, as for my daughter, the situation is different. Until she is twenty-five it is true her problems will be about the same as

my son's and I do not want to discriminate between my children, so I am going to give her a third of her share when she reaches that age. This will give her an opportunity to become used to responsibility and the handling of money. Her problem after that, however, isn't the same. I want her to marry the best man in the world and to be very happy, but even the best man in the world sometimes makes mistakes, and I don't want to gamble with my girl's happiness. So I am going to leave the rest of her share, the other two-thirds, in trust where it will always be safe, and so I will know that as long as she lives she is going to get a check "on the first of every month."

Such a plan, simple though it may be, is not to be found in any book. It comes rather from the heart. It breathes the spirit of the man who makes it. It perpetuates his judgment and experience and knowledge of human nature for the lasting benefit of those whom he counts the nearest and dearest on earth. Losses by failure to make wills cannot touch them.

According to President Alexander G. Ruthven of the University of Michigan, laying the groundwork for expanding the university as a character building influence is perhaps the most important achievement of the institution relating directly to the students. Character and spiritual development for students may come in a large university as well as a small college, by closer student-teacher relationships and by calling attention to the courses in philosophy and religion in the institution, and this has been done. Practical experience in human relations is now being tried at Michigan through the Earhart Foundation in Sociology which aims to develop an intelligent citizenship through actual study of community problems. As a means of helping students to work out their own philosophy of life, it is proposed to set up a "Counselor in Religion," whose experience will qualify him as an adviser of youth.—*School and Society*.

SUCCESSFUL FINANCING THROUGH WILLS*

NEAL DOW BECKER
MEMBER OF THE NEW YORK BAR

THE object of this paper is to tell something of what has been done by alumni of Cornell University in an effort to stimulate bequests to Cornell.

In order to give you the background, I must tell you that among the important American universities Cornell is relatively young—having been opened to students in the autumn of 1868, sixty-five years ago,—a very brief period in measuring the lives of educational institutions. Nor is Cornell a particularly large institution in the number of its students. The present number is about 5,700; and the policy of the university is to keep the number of students down to about that figure by a process of careful selection of applicants. There are now living about 47,000 former students.

The men who have been attracted to Cornell have been, in substantial percentages, those desiring to qualify themselves for special achievement along professional lines, particularly in applied science; and, in general, they have been without wealth except as they have gained it by their own efforts after leaving college.

Cornell is not richly endowed, and the need for additional income is always pressing.

About twenty-five years ago some alumni organized The Cornellian Council of Cornell University, the object of which was to raise money for the university from the alumni and former students, and to be the sole agency which should solicit alumni contributions. The Cornellian Council has offices in one of the university buildings at Ithaca. It has a full-time paid staff headed by Mr. Harold Flack, of the Class of 1912, who would be presenting this paper except for the fact that he has worked so hard at his job that he is just now recovering from a temporary nervous breakdown.

* From *More and Better Wills*, edited by Alfred Williams Anthony, New York, N. Y.

Particularly under Mr. Flack's administration, the Cornellian Council has been a big success. Originally its membership consisted of a representative from each class, with several representatives at large. Within recent years, however, the basis of membership has been changed, so that now every alumni contributor to the Council becomes automatically a member of the Council. The policies are determined by a small executive committee elected by the membership.

The Cornellian Council has made a big point of emphasizing the importance of small annual subscriptions. We try to get the alumnus into the habit of giving something to the University every year, even if only one dollar.

About ten years ago the Executive Committee of the Cornellian Council arrived at the conclusion that special attention should be devoted to the stimulation of bequests. Accordingly, the Committee on Bequests of the Cornellian Council was appointed, and of this Committee I have been acting as chairman, Mr. Flack being the secretary. All of the members of the Committee are lawyers; this being possible because we have had at Cornell since 1886 a Law School. At first our Committee consisted of only a few Cornell lawyers. Now the membership has been expanded to about seven hundred, widely distributed. The policies are determined by an executive committee of five. Because of geographical reasons the full committee has never had a meeting, and probably never will have one.

The underlying thought behind this committee of lawyers is that to any lawyer in active practice may come any day a client wanting a will drawn and asking for advice as to the name of a worthy beneficiary for a philanthropic or educational bequest. If the Cornell lawyer's mind has been kept sufficiently attuned to the needs of his University, he will not need to hesitate for an appropriate answer to such an inquiry. And even if the Cornell lawyer never draws a will for a client, he at least has his own will to draw, or have drawn; and I venture to believe that in these days few Cornellians, lawyers or non-lawyers, draw their wills without the thought of Cornell at least coming into their minds.

The members of our Committee do not, however, buzz around asking people to make their wills and leave money to Cornell:

nor do they offer to draw wills free of charge if bequests to Cornell are made in such wills; at one time we held out the inducement that an alumnus could have his will drawn free of charge by a member of our committee, provided he made a bequest to Cornell University; but upon mature consideration we decided that this practice was, at least, undignified, and now we make it a particular point to frown upon the making of any such inducements. Our objective is to keep in the mind of the Cornell alumnus, and particularly of the Cornell lawyer, the fact that Cornell, his foster mother, is in need of help, and that he will be doing a public service by giving to Cornell at least a part of his worldly goods when the time comes that he must make his exit from the stage of life.

The Cornellian Council issues a monthly bulletin, which is sent free of charge to all alumni. In this bulletin appear items of interest regarding the University and current university life; and invariably some space is devoted to the subject of bequests, special mention being made of every bequest made to Cornell.

The BULLETIN has pointed out from time to time that Cornell University will accept monies, by testamentary bequest or otherwise, and will agree to pay an income on the sum received, either to the giver or to persons he may specify, at the average rate of interest which the University itself receives on its invested funds. This kind of an arrangement has been availed of by many alumni. It has the advantage of relieving the beneficiary of the cares and hazards of caring for investments, and also it produces a larger income than is normally received from trust funds.

Just as the Cornellian Council, in soliciting annual subscriptions, emphasizes the importance of small gifts, so the Committee on Bequests emphasizes the importance of small bequests. If each of the living Cornellians should leave by will only \$100 to Cornell, the aggregate sum would be over \$4,700,000 from which the University could get an annual income of over \$235,000.

The question naturally arises: What, if any, are the traceable results of the work of our Committee on Bequests? One must answer that it is difficult to trace bequests directly to the work of the Committee, although some bequests can definitely be so traced. Testators do not, in their wills, often say why they make the bequests which they make. The fact remains, however, that

our Committee does get a large number of requests from lawyers asking information as to how certain bequests should be worded. Since our Committee has been in existence Cornell University has received bequests of over \$5,000,000; and we have been told of wills of persons still living who have made bequests to Cornell in a total sum of more than \$5,000,000.

In general, it may be stated with confidence that the work of our Committee has in its ten years of existence created among Cornell alumni a certain will-consciousness which did not exist before, the results of which should prove increasingly beneficial to the University.

How to Raise Money. By Lyman L. Pierce. New York.
Harper and Brothers, 1932. \$3.00.

This book is true to its title. It gives definite information, as shown by the life experience of thirty years, how an expert conducts financial promotional campaigns. The material, however, connected with the technique of a money-raising campaign is more or less familiar to the public because of the many campaigns which have been conducted in the open. The reasons which justify methods of procedure are more fully explained here than in the literature of the subject ordinarily presented.

Probably the most valuable portion of the book, apart from questions of technique and method, lies in the sections devoted to a discussion, pro and con, of the values of a community chest and whether those values promise to be enduring. The advantages of the community chest are named in detail under twenty-one heads.

The defects in the community chest plan are listed under twenty-eight heads, the most serious of which is: that the community chest has not found the way of letting its constituency distinguish between *charities*, which deal chiefly with physical ills and seek for the most part material advantages, and *philanthropies*, which minister more directly to personalities with a view to character-building, including, of course, education and religion.

The author is not sure what may be the final effect of emergency relief upon community programs but is sure that the community chest has a great unfinished task ahead, doubts to be cleared up, problems to be solved, adjustments to be made; and he adds, "With all its limitations, the community chest is the most stimulating method that has been evolved through the years for uniformity of support of the agencies . . . I believe the community chest in some form is here to stay."

The whole book dignifies charitable thoughts, methods and processes.—A. W. A.

THE STORY OF SOME COLLEGES*

THOMAS A. GONSER

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR OF NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY ALUMNI ASSOCIATION

A CAMPAIGN for bequest contributions was never so appropriate as it has been in the past few years. Educational, religious, and charitable organizations alike have been faced with the undeniable fact that large gifts were practically not to be had from the public, not because people were indisposed to give but because all their resources were necessary for their own uses. Every one has been anxiously watching the financial situation. Business conditions have been so uncertain that no one has felt justified in paying out large sums as a voluntary contribution to any cause no matter how worthy the appeal. The problem for the organization asking public support was to profit from the existing good-will without requiring an immediate donation. The logical recourse was to seek gifts through the bequest channel.

Universities and colleges have come to the realization that such assistance could and should be definitely sought. A recent survey of the educational institutions of America showed practically every one of them was engaged in soliciting bequests. While most of their activities were more or less sporadic and did not follow any systematic plan, there were ten colleges and universities which had mapped out and were following definite plans for promoting this type of giving: California, Columbia, Cornell, Missouri, Mt. Holyoke, North Carolina, Northwestern, Ohio Wesleyan, Pennsylvania, and Syracuse.

The Cornell program has been developed more extensively than others. It was organized in 1924 and now includes a bequest committee of approximately 800 Cornell lawyers scattered throughout the United States and in foreign countries. This committee is kept informed of new bequests and of all phases of the program by frequent communications sent to the entire body. It is estimated by Cornell that at least \$1,000,000 a year is written into wills for their benefit.

* From *More and Better Wills*, edited by Alfred Williams Anthony, Committee on Financial and Fiduciary Matters, 105 E. 22d Street, New York City.

Pennsylvania has a somewhat similar bequest program under way and at Columbia a committee of lawyers is also planned for this purpose.

At Yale the success of the annual alumni fund is largely attributable to bequests. It has become traditional with Yale alumni to include their Alma Mater in their wills, so that over a long period of time the annual income from this source has reached large proportions.

Northwestern University, like other institutions, realized that with changing conditions other promotional methods would be necessary, and we turned to the solicitation of bequests also. As the basis of our campaign we published a booklet called "The Story of Educational Philanthropy." After discussing in this booklet the principle of giving to educational institutions—and to Northwestern University in particular—we set forth as attractively as we could the needs of the University with the suggestion that the writer give consideration to any one of them in making disposition of his estate. We placed emphasis on the idea also of making bequests for unrestricted funds. We explained that since the needs of our various schools vary from time to time depending upon circumstances, unrestricted funds permit flexibility in adapting the resources of the University to the needs of the schools and therefore act as a stabilizing force which enables the University to maintain its several departments at highest efficiency. Accompanying the bequest form for restricted funds was a note suggesting that attorneys, donors, and trust officers, when drawing up bequests for a restricted purpose, should provide, in case such original purpose is rendered obsolete or inapplicable through time or changing conditions, that the bequests can be used as the Board of Trustees of the University may direct.

A letter was sent to all alumni of our Law School saying that under present conditions a special effort was necessary to encourage prospective donors to name Northwestern in their wills. We asked them to become members of our Bequest Committee, and when they answered, as several hundred did, we responded by sending them "The Story of Educational Philanthropy," asking them to bring the University to the attention of their clients and any wealthy person who was engaged in drawing a will.

Copies of this booklet were eventually sent to all Law School alumni whether they had signified their willingness to join our Bequest Committee or not, to a large list of wealthy, prospective donors, and to trust officers and lawyers throughout the nation.

The bequest idea can very easily be worked into the annual alumni campaigns and has been by many universities. The average alumnus is not in a position to make contributions of any magnificent sum, but while he is being requested to send in as generous a cash gift as he can each year, he can also be encouraged to write the university into his will for whatever amount he desires. From our own experience at Northwestern, we know that a hundred dollars can be written into a will with the same nobility and sincerity of purpose that one more often associates with the million-dollar bequest.

It is advantageous to include a bequest form in every piece of literature that is written for promotional purposes. One may even find this form in the catalogs of many universities and colleges.

Closely tied up with the bequest idea is that of annuities. In fact, we venture to assert that annuities will be the popular type of giving of the next few years, just as bequests have been characteristic of this period. Being able to see the fruition of your gift, being assured of a fixed income for the remainder of your life, securing tax exemption, etc., etc., are points of annuity-giving that have a very great appeal. Bequest-giving is suitable, however, to the donor of limited means as well as to the wealthy and for that reason should continue to be an important objective of the promotional work of any organization which is soliciting the public.

We have mentioned the program of Northwestern University in detail not because it is unique but because it is indicative of what is going on in other colleges and universities.

We, like many others, were inspired by Cornell's "Where There's a Will" campaign, in which they affirmed that there were three claims on the estate which a man leaves: "his family, his community, and the cause of Education." We do not know exactly what our success has been to date, but enough information comes to us from time to time to assure us that our efforts have not been in vain.

BALANCING THE UNIVERSITY BUDGET

ARCHIE M. PALMER

CONFRONTED with diminished revenue from student fees, from endowment income, and from contributions, college and university administrative officers are taking heroic steps to keep their institutions at a high level of efficiency, no matter how great the sacrifice. With the usual support from outside sources curtailed, they have been forced to adopt extreme measures to reduce expenditures and thereby live within their restricted income.

Institutions which depend more largely upon student fees for their income find themselves relatively in better financial condition than those whose support normally comes chiefly from the returns on invested endowments. Not only are the returns on invested funds—all too frequently now in the form of frozen assets—decreased, but the prospects are not at all favorable in times like these for gifts from individuals and for sustained support from church and other constituencies. Colleges generally, and especially those located in or near large centers of population, have more students living at home and commuting to college than formerly. Those from whose immediate environs a good many students have usually gone to distant institutions, particularly in the East, are also benefiting from an increased local enrolment, which has in many instances served to offset other losses.

Despite the hard times and the disposition on the part of students to seek financial assistance and to negotiate for time in paying their bills, several colleges have actually raised their tuition fees during the last three years, and there appears to be a growing tendency to seek increased income from that source. The exigencies of the present moment tend to vindicate the idea that a student should pay a larger share of the cost of his education.

Nevertheless, it is obvious that the solution to the budget-balancing problem must come from internal economies rather than any significant increase in external resources. Recent surveys of what the colleges and universities of the country are

actually doing to reduce their expenditures and economize with a minimum of loss in educational efficiency reveal that methods of budget saving most frequently adopted are reductions in the cost of maintenance and of operating expense and the elimination of miscellaneous expenditures which do not directly concern the instruction of students.

Most college and university presidents have held to the principle that there are other far more preferable ways of curtailing expenditures than reducing salaries. Typical of this attitude is the comment of Chancellor Kirkland that at Vanderbilt University "we are undertaking no new construction work, but we are not cutting our educational work, we are not cutting salaries of teachers, and we are not increasing the load they are expected to bear. We are advocating a general policy of economy everywhere, and are begging all our officers and all heads of departments to play the part of wise householders and save in every way possible. Even if an appropriation is included in the budget, we encourage the saving of part of it, so that it may return to the general income."

While as a last resort reductions in the salaries paid to faculty members have been necessary in many colleges, more particularly the smaller ones, a very considerable number have maintained existing salary scales and a few have actually made their usual annual increases. Frequently the reduction in the amount paid for instruction has been achieved in the form of "voluntary contributions toward balancing the budget" on the part of faculties. Some colleges are guaranteeing a certain base or minimum payment with the understanding that the balance of the nominal salary—or as much of it as possible—will be forthcoming if the yearly income permits.

A survey of the situation in forty-three universities indicates that those on private endowment have been able to balance their budgets with much less severe curtailment than have the publicly supported institutions. Drastic reductions in state appropriations have made it necessary for the latter to effect retrenchments in all forms of operation, including their educational programs, teaching personnel, and faculty salaries. Practically every one of the nineteen state universities included in the present survey has instituted either a horizontal or a graduated

salary cut, and has also reduced the teaching personnel. The United States Office of Education recently reported that 60 per cent of the publicly controlled colleges and universities of the country had reduced salaries from 5 to 31 per cent.

On the other hand, while they have all found it necessary to scrutinize their expenditures more carefully than ever, comparatively few of the large endowed universities had, up to the first of April of this year, reduced faculty salaries or decreased the teaching personnel beyond not filling vacancies or renewing short-time appointments. Where reductions in salary have been made they have in only two instances exceeded 10 per cent. At one university two successive 10 per cent salary cuts have gone into effect this year, while at another, where a graduated scale has been adopted, the top salaries have been cut 20 per cent.

After all the economies in operation have been effected, faculty salaries cut, teaching readjustments made, and educational programs revised, there still remains the problem of planning for the future. The continuous functioning of our colleges and universities at a high level of scholarship is fundamental. The planning for both their financing and their operation calls for the interest and cooperation of all the groups concerned.

Each institution has set up its own internal machinery—administrative, faculty, and trustees—for the examination of the various aspects of its work. The situation is under constant observance at all institutions but their methods of handling it vary according to personnel and program. At one university the responsibility rests largely with the administrative vice-president, who with the treasurer and comptroller constitute a "standing group" to watch and study developments and to devise proposals. That group originates plans and procedures which are in turn examined more critically by those who are directly affected so that the final decision represents the best of which they are capable.

At another university the study of the financial problems has thus far been left to the president and the treasurer of the board of trustees, and their recommendations have been accepted by the board. At another, a budget committee, composed of the president, the provost and comptroller, takes up all problems of financial retrenchment with the faculty chairmen of the several

departments of instruction. After going over such matters as affect their own departments the chairmen then discuss them again in detail with the budget committee before final decision is made by the trustees.

At one large endowed university questions of policy in view of general conditions are taken up by an administrative committee on which are represented the most important of the trustee committees and certain administrative officers, and also by an informal cabinet of the administration which meets weekly with the president. While the latter group has no authority, it does frequently help to smooth over conditions and solve problems by offering suggestions to the administrative committee of the board of trustees. At another institution all university policies are decided by the president and the board of trustees, with the advice of a university council consisting of the president and the deans. At the meetings of this council, which are held once a month, there is a frank discussion of university policies in general, and of such problems as arise in the individual departments. This discussion is designed to lead to a clearer notion of the general objective and policy of the university, and to give a more accurate perspective of specific objectives.

At several universities, where the budget of each individual school is in the hands of the dean, the deans have been aided by faculty committees in determining in what way necessary decreases in expenditures may be made with the least interference to the educational activities. The administration of one university is working very closely with the individual deans and with a council of deans which sits in a body to consider all possible measures for reductions which will not hamper the educational efficiency of the institution. In making this year's budget at another university a committee consisting of administrative officers went over in detail with representatives of the several departments, all requests for appropriations and by such conferences reductions were agreed upon.

The deans of the constituent colleges and the executive officers of the non-degree granting departments of one university meet at stated intervals for a thorough discussion of the working of the budget of the entire university. They operate under what is known in industry as the "control budget," and at each of

these meetings, which take place at least once a month, a complete analysis of all income and expense is given. A finance committee of this budget conference group meets on call of the chairman and has the power to act in an emergency. This organization has functioned very satisfactorily during these recent years of uncertainty. The frank and frequent presentation of the facts connected with the financial operation of the schools and divisions, in the immediate presence of the executives concerned, has built up a spirit of cooperation which is most inspiring.

AN OPEN LETTER ON THE COLLEGE TUITION FEE

Office of the President
Centre College, Danville, Kentucky
March 3, 1933

To the Editor of the BULLETIN:

The letter of Dr. Fred J. Kelly, Chief of the Division of Colleges and Professional Schools of the United States Office of Education, published in your BULLETIN for December, 1932, raises again the question of the proper fractional part of the total cost of education that each college student should pay. He mentions the suggestions of Drs. Davis, Ogan and Reynolds, and then remarks:

This is such a basic issue in American education, it will be unfortunate if the factor of institutional need is allowed to play more than a secondary part in the discussion of it. It would seem better to collect emergency fees from students who can afford to pay them in lean years than to raise the tuition rates, when the grounds for such increase will be financial rather than educational.

The suggestion of raising emergency fees from students who can afford to pay them in lean years is obviously unsound, for the emergency hits all classes alike and the well-to-do would object to paying high fees in depression times just as strenuously as the poor would do at any time. The administrator who would try to raise extra tuition from part of his students during depression times would be inviting trouble on all sides.

No, the problem is deeper; basic in American education, as Dr. Kelly says. It is whether the American taxpayers and

private donors should be called on to give college and professional education at less than cost to all who care to apply. If the answer to that question is, "Yes," as indeed all educators will agree that it should be, then we must pass to a more exact question, "How much less than cost should tuition be?" Here the suggestion that has frequently been made is that the student should pay the bare instructional cost, with students' fees equalling the faculty payroll. The balance of the cost must be met by taxes, gifts and income from endowment funds. What is wrong with this suggestion? Why should not the colleges cease to pauperize young men and young women by giving them special training far beyond what the average youth can secure, and insist that those who want these advantages for themselves or their children must pay at least a reasonable part of the cost?

If this plan is not sound, and if Dr. Kelly's idea of maintaining low tuition costs is sound, then two groups of people ought to be informed what is ahead for them. One group is the American taxpayers, who may resent being called on to help state-maintained institutions that will not help themselves by raising tuition rates. The other group is the administrators and trustees of private colleges that must in the long run succumb to ruinous competition with state-maintained institutions charging \$10 or \$20 a semester and throw the burden of furnishing a college education for their students—now educated by them without costing the taxpayers one cent—upon the broad backs of these taxpayers.

It is obvious that I have an interest in this controversy, for I represent a private college. But so also do the distinguished public servants who head the state-maintained institutions or the state departments of education. They have an opposite interest. I have nothing but good-will towards them all, but I doubt their competency to decide this issue, even as I doubt my own. We all have interests at stake. Is it not possible to find a disinterested group of citizens, representing the interests of the whole public that is and that is to be, who could present unbiased findings as to the principles on which tuition charges in all institutions of higher learning ought to be based?

Very truly yours,

(Signed) CHARLES J. TURCK, President

COLLEGE CREDIT IN HIGH SCHOOL

EDWARD S. JONES
THE UNIVERSITY OF BUFFALO

THE American high school is stretching. Mainly in the West, it has burst its conventional bonds, releasing a new product—the junior college. Merely attaching a name to a group of classes, however, does not change the method of teaching, the training of teachers, nor the value of the work covered. Many junior colleges have retained for their teaching staffs former high school teachers.

In the East there has also been restless stretching. Where junior colleges have not been formed, there are large bodies of post-graduate high school students. In Jamestown, New York, a city of fifty thousand, there have been over two hundred post-graduate high school students, with similar or smaller percentages of such students in other centers.

These post-graduates colonies in some quarters (New York State) are now changing themselves into "depression colleges," with more or less state support. Under such conditions there is a slight altering of the curricula presented to students, but at the same time a probable loss in the quality of teachers who may be brought in. In one large city the principal of a high school remarked the other day that of the sixteen teachers now handling work in the late afternoon and evening on the junior college level he would not think of hiring half of them for his own high school work. "You see," he explained, "the junior college teachers do not qualify for even the fifteen dollars a week they are allowed unless they are absolutely destitute." On the other hand, it is true that in a few places regular junior college programs are being set up under close supervision and with careful selection of teachers.

The average large high school has been enriched in several ways during the past few years. Better laboratories and libraries and new courses have developed, and often a group of definitely post-graduate courses. Many teachers have been brought in with M.A. degrees or even more extensive training. In a few places honor or tutorial students are given a chance to work more or less independently under inspiring teachers along advanced lines. It is no wonder that teachers, principals, and superintendents are now asking the colleges why their post-graduate students should not receive college credit.

Has the independent college located in or near an urban center a good case? To what extent can it rightly claim the attendance of high school graduates, at least during the first two years? Its prosperity, if not its continuance, seems to depend largely on the general practice of not recognizing high school course work for college credit. Fortunately for the college, there are a number of arguments against such wholesale recognition. College libraries are generally quite superior to the high school libraries. Typically, high school students are immature and unselected, classes are large, and above all, teachers lack adequate training. The average high school teacher has little more than a college A.B. training. A college allowing an easy translation of high school credit into college equivalents would run the risk of lowering standards. It is for these reasons that 77 per cent of the colleges still give no college credit for work done in high school.

The only sound way out of the dilemma of keeping the college "pure" and isolated from public secondary education on the one hand, and allowing a reasonable acceptance of excess high school units for college hours of credit on the other, is to set up an examining program, whereby the college welcomes all who may have attained satisfactory collegiate status in particular course fields no matter where the training is completed.

A fair number of colleges are now providing for such examinations, usually reluctantly and without publicity. Mr. W. H. Seamans of Oberlin College queried and received replies from thirty-eight Ohio colleges. Twenty-five allowed no credit for high school work carried on beyond the certification requirements for college entrance; thirteen allowed such credit, but nearly always by examination. Of the twenty-one colleges giving college credit for high school work (out of ninety urban colleges from which we have recently heard) sixteen required examinations before college credit was allowed.

A few colleges allow occasional brilliant students to receive college credit for work done in high school beyond the ordinary graduation requirements. Oberlin College specifies, among other things, that the applicant for such credit must stand in the upper quarter (usually upper tenth) of his class, that the subjects must be purely academic, and that ordinarily no work below a "B+" or "A" will be considered. Goucher College encourages

a few very able students who have finished high school requirements in three years to continue advanced and special course work for college credit while still in high school. This is possible on the basis of special arrangements with the Baltimore public schools.

The most common subjects which are allowed college credit are trigonometry (*e.g.* at Manhattan and Louisville) and advanced work in foreign language (seven colleges). The latter field is particularly suitable because a student can be tried out in advanced college courses before actually being allowed such credit.

Columbia has for a number of years placed students in advanced course work on the basis of anticipatory objective examinations. A few of these students have been allowed credit for elementary courses when they have been found adequately prepared for advanced work. Other colleges (Vanderbilt, Northwestern, and the University of Buffalo) have allowed departmental examining for extra courses over and above entrance requirements, and have given credit only when such students have successfully carried advanced course work in that department. In other words, the student is considered to be progressively examined for competence in elementary study as he succeeds in advanced work. If a student has taken trigonometry in high school, he would not be given credit for it until he had successfully completed college algebra and analytic geometry.

It is interesting that although there is a tendency for more and more colleges to be lenient in the allowance of college credit for excess high school accomplishment, a few colleges which have been forward in this respect are thinking of withdrawing such opportunities. This is not because of the attitude of accrediting agencies, such as the North Central Association, whose officers are apparently not opposed to the scheme if carefully controlled, but rather because of a feeling that their own standing among fellow colleges and in the esteem of high schools will be injured.

Several Western universities are trying out quite artificial boundaries in the apportionment of credit, such as granting credit for any excess high school work up to nine hours, or up to 50 per cent of excess high school credits. It would seem to the writer that these are disjointed substitutes for careful examining and the attempt properly to articulate high school and college study.

THE PLACE OF MUSIC IN THE LIBERAL ARTS CURRICULUM

JAMES L. MURSELL

PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, LAWRENCE COLLEGE

THIS paper is an attempt to answer two questions. What are the values which give music a valid claim to recognition in the liberal arts curriculum? What principles of organization must be observed if these values are to be realized?

Let us begin by discussing the first question.

1. The first, and indeed the deepest, educational value of music lies in the fact that it is an august element in the culture of our civilization, the civilization going continuously back to the Europe of the Holy Empire and the Church. Just as the plastic arts were the characteristic aesthetic expression of the classical civilization, so is music the most characteristic aesthetic expression of the civilization deriving ultimately from the community of Christendom. No mistake can be more profound than to regard it merely as an elegant accomplishment. The great masters gave the world infinitely more than this. They uttered in a most pure and marvellously responsive medium, things that life had taught them. They beheld a vision and proclaimed a message, and it is because of this that their art has lived. The musical tradition is man's supreme heritage of noble, humane emotion. This should be understood, for it is the basis of its claim upon the liberal curriculum. It should be treated neither as a side line nor a chiefly vocational field. Music ranks next only to literature as the most truly liberalizing agency which our civilization has created.

2. Its second great value lies in its striking compatibility with those educative processes which we all regard as ideal. Education is in constant danger of a divorce from reality, which leads students to work for the essentially artificial goal of examination success, rather than for masteries whose validity they themselves cannot question. Now it is a very difficult thing to organize most subjects in such a way that the results of a student's efforts speak for themselves with indubitable clearness. But with music, this is both easy and natural. When one sets out to master

some great composition, an almost ideal educational situation is created. The amount of sheer work involved is limited only by the capacity of the human organism to stand punishment. But this work is directed towards, and wholly dominated by, a result which must stand up by virtue of its own excellence, under the sharp test of public performance, one of the most exacting ordeals a man can undergo. The past twenty years have seen a wide-spread protest against the doctrine of formal discipline, in essence the view that effort itself, apart from any results, is valuable. Far too much attention has been given to the negative side of that protest. Constructively, it means that we become educated not merely by trying, but by trying and achieving, and that the true discipline comes from an association of effort with inspiration. Here is the true cycle of education. For any subject to offer naturally, within the boundaries of the school, without any distorting reorganization, the entire sequence of educational enterprise, from crude beginnings, through the long toil of learning, to ultimate accomplishment, is no mean or negligible advantage. Such is precisely the case with music.

3. The third great value of music lies in the fact that it is a personal asset of incalculable worth and lifelong permanence. Many are the lamentations over the hordes who go through four years of the liberal arts curriculum, and emerge barbarians. The courses have been completed, the examinations passed, the credits accumulated, and still they are unsaved. The cultural vaccine has not taken. They remain in essence uneducated men. Now it is impossible really to do anything with music and still remain unchanged. Something has been possessed which one can never alienate. The magic which we call education has done its work; and there is no counter spell. Moreover, it is a change all in the way of happiness, of breadth of cultural sympathies, of depth of human insight. Real music study quickens a man to new worlds, and starts him on a spiritual journeying whose end no one can guess.

Now for our second question. What principles of organization must be observed if these values are to be realized?

The one simple, but imperative condition to fulfill is to make actual, direct musical activity the heart of the program. This is

just what many colleges have not done. They have approached music in the spirit of a preposterous and deadly neo-Ciceronianism. The arid grammar of formal harmony and counterpoint, and the dry bones of factual music history have been offered instead of the supremely and divinely living essence. What we must have is an act of educational faith in the liberalizing power of music as an expressive human art. If our students are to garner its treasures, there is only one way. They must have opportunity for a wide range of authentic musical experience.

For convenience in thinking, musical experience may be divided into the three categories of listening, performance, and creation, though they interpenetrate and mutually support one another. Each has its necessary place in a complete program.

With regard to listening, the capital fallacy lies in supposing that this means mere passive hearing, mere "exposure" to music. A great composition is among the most subtle, intricate, and sophisticated of the products of the human mind. Rightly to apprehend it demands highly developed powers of application, discrimination, intellectual analysis, and emotional response. To listen well calls for much learning, and needs to be taught, and taught aright. Out of this arises the educational value of listening. There should be organized opportunity to hear and understand much great music. But listening activity should not end with the formal course in "appreciation," even though such a course may have its place. There should be informal opportunities for hearing student ensembles and solo performances. Those able to do so should be encouraged to read through a considerable amount of music, and to study it. And the possibilities of intelligent concert going should not be slighted.

With regard to performance, the central fallacy lies in thinking of this as chiefly a motor activity. As a matter of fact, the motor element in the worthy performance of worthy music is really secondary. What is involved is interpretation rather than gymnastics. And this demands the most minute, painstaking, and self-critical study of every nuance of the composition. It is an intellectual and emotional, rather than a physical process. And from this flows its cultural value. The common distinction between "applied" and "theoretical" music is in error; for any

musical activity which is not applied or practical is educationally and artistically sterile. One of the greatest and most fruitful experiences a person can have is that of studying and perfecting the performance of worthy music.

With regard to musical creation, the capital fallacy lies in supposing that this involves chiefly a grammatical drill on harmony, counter-point, and form, taught in the old-fashioned manner. Many of our great music schools are breaking away from this fallacy, largely under the influence of the ideas developed by Schenker. Musical creation should be handled, not as a technical and specialized skill of forbidding difficulty, but as a normal activity of the musical mind. This should certainly be our point of view, as we seek to integrate music into the liberal scheme, and to make the most of its humanistic values and true meanings. Moreover it can be done. Materials and methods are ready to our hands, and only wait for us to use them.

In closing, two points should be made. First, the liberalizing value of music will depend absolutely upon the qualitative excellence of the work. Nowhere is it more true that only the very best is good enough. Second, our general aim should not be the old-fashioned teaching of music in the narrow sense of either a quasi-vocational or a merely ornamental accomplishment. Any college which desires to obtain those rich values which the subject so uniquely offers is committed to no less an enterprise than making itself over into a musical environment. For musical education, with its whole train of concomitant values, ultimately depends on living a full, rounded, inspiring, and natural musical life.

FREEDOM AND THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

JOHN S. CORNETT

DEPARTMENT OF BIBLE AND RELIGION, THE COLLEGE OF EMPORIA

It was a favorite thought of the educational philosopher Jean Jacques Rousseau that man was far better off in the primitive state of nature when there was a minimum of restrictions on his personal freedom. The successive stages of advancing civilization had served to rob him of his original happiness and liberty, had hemmed him in with all manner of restraints which had enslaved and impoverished him. And it were a "consummation devoutly to be wished" that civilized man might shake himself free of his shackles and regain once more the pristine state of nature marked by its simplicity, freedom and happiness!

Educational thought has travelled far since the days of Rousseau. What to that thinker was a curse we count today "man's blessing not his doom." His goal of freedom is to be found not in some visionary original state of nature but in an ever more complete process of socialization. He alone is free who is thoroughly socialized. Organized society grows ever more complex; with increasing complexity there goes a proportional restriction on one's personal liberty, but also—we must not overlook—a corresponding increase in the number and quality of one's privileges.

Perhaps man is not a free being at all, but is a mechanically-determined bundle of stimulus-response mechanisms without consciousness or free volition! But evidence abounds that the extreme behavioristic emphasis in psychology is on the wane and the behaviorists themselves are talking more and more in terms of purposive behaviorism, while every educationist of standing registers his emphatic belief in the modifiability of human nature. There may be difference of opinion as to the relative importance of external and internal forces in the actual process; but practically all are agreed that human nature is in varying degree modifiable.

Another canon of present-day educational theory is that conduct is to a large extent socially determined. The individual is likely to reflect in his standards of behavior the standards of the group whose life he shares. Youth in particular does not like to be looked upon as "different." The adolescent boy and girl like to be and do as their "buddies" or their chums. Often-times scorn, ridicule, or even social ostracism is the fate of the one who deliberately acts differently. A young lady—graduate of a college of high moral and religious tone in the "Bible Belt"—goes to a New England institution for graduate study; and is socially ostracised when she refuses to take part in the smoking and kindred activities of the students in which a large majority participate. The ideals—or lack of them—of the group are as a rule those of the individual in the group.

Again, it is conceded that human nature is in varying degree capable of response to the appeal of ideals. Youth in particular is amenable to the challenge of idealism. And this was never more true than today. The "Revolt of Youth" and the "Youth Movement" are thoroughly constructive in their outlook. The past few years have seen the rise of numerous student-projects such as the Students-in-Industry, League of Nations and World Court Assemblies, and International Camps, which are motivated by the finest spirit of idealism; actual endeavors to translate the ideals of social justice and Christian brotherhood into living realities. If we would move youth to action along any given line it must be through the appeal of idealism rather than by the way of legalism. To seek to coerce by holding up the threat of the law and penalty will evoke at best a sullen, stilted obedience, at worst it may be a spirit of defiance. But our twentieth century youth as truly as those of former days are quick to respond to the challenge of the heroic.

Granted that human nature is modifiable, that conduct is largely socially determined, that youth is capable of response to ideals, it is the educationist's task to lead young folk to a thorough realization of the fact that they shall find true freedom only in positive social attitudes and conduct. He is most free who is most truly socialized. Anti-social conduct is the real slavery.

The great problem of moral and religious education is to preserve, on the one hand, that attitude of respect for the person-

alities of youth which guarantees them the privilege of initiating conduct of themselves, and, on the other, to cherish for them the highest ideals of character. There are probably few educators who do not realize the desirability of a higher level of idealism in the group *mores* of the oncoming generation. The thing we have to work towards is the making of the ideal way and the ideal value *customary* in the group life. The standard of conduct which is motivated by "the honor of a gentleman" principle may not be of the highest, but it is infinitely raised above the "get-by" and "get-away-with" code which is so prevalent in the midst. The student who practises cheating and lying in school and college is father to the man who is unscrupulous in business transactions in later years. We need not only to instruct but to inspire youth with the vision of the attractiveness of the ideal way, so that idealism may become the desired, the customary practice in group relationships. And it is just at this point that the part played by our girls and young women becomes all-important. A great deal is heard today about the "single standard." The "single standard" will serve, provided it be placed high enough. Too often it has had the effect of the reduction of standards. It must ever be borne in mind that the physical and nervous constitution of women is such that it cannot experience with impunity what man's less sensitively organized physique is able to endure. And at bottom the national consciousness recognizes this fact, witness the chorus of disapproval that went up in many quarters when recently certain predatory tobacco distributors undertook to display suggestive advertising carrying with it the insinuation that cigarette-smoking was normal and customary among women. It is what the women of the nation sanction that becomes established sooner or later in the group *mores*. It is they who set the standards. We have perhaps overdone the "single standard" emphasis by putting the issue solely on the basis of appeal to reason. After all, as Dr. Bernard Iddings Bell has well expressed it, "Only by the exercise of more than reason can reason itself be preserved." Let our women folk energetically resolve to set high standards in all affairs of social ethics, and give the challenge to the men folk to come up aloft. Let there be fewer of the type who say, "He wanted to neck so I necked with him"; and more who have

the courage to declare, "This is wrong, we ought not to do it." The times are over-ripe for change. Realism and rationalism have had their innings; the times are calling for the challenging note of a Sir Galahad type of idealism.

Again, there is the question of adult responsibility for youth. The average adult of middle years seems unconscionably slow in learning that if his exhortations to youth are to have any weight or significance whatsoever, they must be reenforced by example. It is a truism whose triteness is redeemed only by the fact of its exceeding importance that the adolescent boy or girl will follow the *example*, not the *precept*, of the middle-aged adult. When a group of intermediate boys on their way to Sunday-school see a car filled with grown men being driven to the golf course on a beautiful Sunday morning, the inevitable reaction of the boys is the desire for the "freedom" which man's estate will bring them to pursue like courses. When a seventeen-year-old youth is appealed to by a temperance enthusiast to give up drinking, he turns at once to his father's example—"If Dad will quit, I will quit. What goes for him goes for me." There are two predominant influences upon the behavior-modes of the adolescent: the one is that of the social group he "gangs with," the other is the influence of adults, parents and others, who touch his life most closely. The great mass of adults from twenty-five to forty years rarely stop to reflect upon the magnitude of the effect which their behavior, conscious and unconscious, is exercising upon plastic youth. Freedom belongs only to those who recognize the responsibility which life itself imposes, a responsibility as wide and far-reaching as the outreach of society.

We are living today in a period of rapidly expanding areas of socialization. And just in proportion as life becomes more and more complex, and the bonds of attachment and contact between groups, peoples and races become more manifold and intense, in like proportion is it needful that human beings become ever more thoroughly socialized. "No man liveth unto himself" was never more poignantly true than now. And all those unsocial habits, such as intemperance, which are instances of a plain misconception of the true meaning of human freedom, leave behind them a trail of consequences ever more pernicious and socially baneful.

ful. If it was an evil for an eighteenth century stagecoach driver in England to imbibe strong drink freely, how much more so in the case of the twentieth century locomotive engineer, chauffeur or air-pilot in America! The skilled servant of the common weal trained to render some useful and necessary service to the public, who is also a drunkard, is an anachronism, morally speaking, in the life of today. And to the same category may be consigned the many wanton breakers of the speed laws for the direction of traffic, and in general all whose conduct is motivated by selfish desires which run counter to the attainment of the social well-being. There can be but one answer to the world-old question which first gained currency in the days of the patriarchs of Israel,—“Am I my brother’s keeper?” Whether or not we will to have it so, we are all our brothers’ keepers; all members one of another.

Purely selfish conduct was never more heinous than now, in the light of the seriousness of the social consequences of all unsocial behavior. The “humanity that is above every nation” is demanding as never before that we visualize clearly the probable consequences of every projected train of endeavor. Merely to live was never so serious a matter as now; and it is growing ever more so. The cry, “This that I do is my own business and no one else’s” is at once the mark of the ignorant, stupid and thoughtless man.

And it is just at this point where a premium is placed on all high-minded, enlightened, conscientious and socially constructive thinking, that oftentimes our best and ablest leaders are made to suffer for it. On the one hand one of our most eminent scholars and thinkers is denied admission to American citizenship because he has conscientious objections to taking arms in the event of war, while at the same time the nation itself has gone on record through its Kellogg Treaty as in favor of the outlawry of war. What an inconsistency! A government puts on its statute-books legislation which in effect outlaws the war method; and yet a member of the state is denied the rights of citizenship for avowing his convictions as a pacifist. In all such cases injustice is done to the individual directly concerned. He is free, enlightened; his attitudes thoroughly socialized, in accord with the best

vision of our time. It is the laws upon the statute-books that have grown archaic, it is they that are in need of a new crystallization which shall give expression to the wider vision of a socially reconstructed world-order. Such an order is beginning actually to take shape under the creative leadership of men and women of good-will who are positive builders of world brotherhood; who have outgrown the prejudices of race and nationality; who have made the discovery that the sentiment, "East is East and West is West and never the two shall meet" is now obsolete and that world peace must come on a basis of growing mutual knowledge, confidence and respect through the interchange of cultural and spiritual goods as well as material. Such are in the true sense free; they have made the adjustment to the democratic world-order of the new days that is progressively being realized in our time.

One other area of the organized life of today I should like to refer to, *viz.*, leisure and the recreation problem. The Indian mystic, Tagore, in the notable educational conference at Vancouver, B. C., spoke on leisure as wealth. It is a commodity that we will do well to take intelligent account of. The abuses of leisure are among the most thoroughly unsocial of all practices. The industrial world has seen the average work-week reduced from sixty hours and upwards to thirty-six hours or less. The extension of the use of topspeed machines in every branch of industry has resulted in the speeding up of the processes of production and a corresponding diminution of the hours of labor of the worker. All the signs point to a heightening of this trend in future development rather than an abatement. We have all been more or less influenced by the tendency to high-pressure methods; intensive processes extending over a shortened working-day. What shall be done with our leisure time? Are the true uses of recreation being realized?

The faults of our play and recreation interests are sufficiently obvious. On the one hand is the fact of universal commercialized recreation, the net effect of which is debilitating rather than uplifting from both the aesthetic and the moral point of view. Our most popular recreations have been prostituted to money-making ends; the vulgar, the tawdry, the indecent are common-

places and the public is apparently well content to have it so. The note of genuine heroism or idealism is largely conspicuous by its absence in both dramatic and screen productions. For one dramatization with at least a background of idealism such as Edna Ferber's "Show Boat" a hundred productions are rancid with sex appeal, or ludicrous. When one considers the millions of dollars expended yearly in the education of our people, one ostensible purpose of which is surely the development of taste and appreciation in the realm of esthetic values, the fact of the easy-going satisfaction of all and sundry with the offerings of commercialized recreation provided these have enough "kicks" and "thrills," is somewhat disappointing.

There is also the fact of the inordinate lengths to which the principle of competition has been carried in the sphere of athletics and kindred social activities of the educational world. Our collegiate sports, dramatics, forensics, musical art have been caught up in the all-embracing scheme of the competitive contest. A great deal of subtle propaganda which is educationally subversive of pure ideals is the concomitant of these contests. Effort is concentrated on the goal of winning; winning which must be always at the expense of another's losing. High premiums are placed on winning teams and creators of such; successful professional coaches are remunerated out of all proportion to the intrinsic value of their talents and services. Student participants and "fans" are keyed up to concert pitch by the injection of a mysterious quantum known as "pep"; victors are treated like conquering heroes home from the battlefield and those who fail to "place" are looked upon with contempt for their "dumbness"; instances are even not unknown of churches playing upon the acute rivalry of two leading conference teams as a means of artificially stimulating the spirit of giving. And what is true of athletic contests is true also in lesser degree of the other activities so prominent in our modern educational world.

In our uses of leisure and recreation we are no longer free. There is probably no greater need in educational circles than that of a higher standard in the field of recreation, "activities" and the uses of leisure. A great deal has been learned as to the best

ways of achieving desirable ends. There is no longer any doubt at all but that the suitably supervised recreation community center is conservative of health, morals and good citizenship, and a sure preventive of crime and criminal tendency. Wholesome supervision of organized and directed play life on the part of our children and youth is a boon to any community. Cities like Milwaukee that have concentrated intelligent effort upon it have reported striking reduction in crime. We know now that the organization of the recreational life of our boys in agencies such as the Boy Scouts is one of the best possible means of the promotion of constructive citizenship standards. Through an increased stress on organized group games open to all instead of on competitive athletic contests, through integration of community programs by means of educational councils on a community-wide scale, through teamwork with a view to eliminating the duplication of programs, through the cultivation of taste and appreciation leading to the demand for higher levels in our commercialized amusements, much may be achieved in the direction of our emancipation from bondage.

The nineteenth century was an epoch of civilized advance—humanitarian, scientific, industrial, literary, political. But at length it wore itself out. The crash of the great war marked its end and marked the decisive turn of human life into some new direction as yet not fully understood. But the close of the epoch has been marked by the rise of satire—Lytton Strachey in England, Sinclair Lewis in America. Satire is the last flicker of originality in a passing epoch as it faces the onroad of staleness and boredom. The prolongation of outworn forms of life means a slow decadence in which there is repetition without any fruit in the reaping of value. There may be high survival power.—*Alfred North Whitehead.*

THE DISCIPLINING OF A DREAMER

ROBERT G. CLELAND

VICE-PRESIDENT OF OCCIDENTAL COLLEGE

Surely, if education be worth while, it must give us a more authentic sense of values. It must in some fashion teach us to distinguish between the things that are transient and those things that are eternal.

*"The Worldly Hope men set their Hearts upon
Turns Ashes—or it prospers; and anon,
Like Snow upon the Desert's dusty Face,
Lighting a little hour or two is gone."*

If in this Omar, the tent-maker, speaks truth, should it not be the mark of the educated person and of the mature mind to show some measure of discretion, to exercise some measure of restraint in the passionate quest for those things that perish even as we lay our hands upon them? Is it not an asset of incalculable value to have such a true perspective of life that we shall strive only for those things that time itself cannot corrupt? It is somewhere told that when Alexander the Great complained that dust from the temple door had blown into his eyes, the priest of the temple, with a wisdom undeviated by the trivial glory of the moment, replied: "Of that dust are the sands of the desert and the kings of Macedon."

A passage from Isaiah that stirs the spirit like a trumpet call; Milton's sonnet on his blindness; a "chorus ending from Euripides;" the first red glory of the dawn on the snow clad summit of a lonely peak; the marvelous structure of the atom and the infinite wonder of the universe; the smiling faces of little children, the rare, rare beauty of the world—after all, is not the capacity to appreciate these things and to derive from them inspiration and confident faith in God of more practical value to the human soul than the material possessions most of us so avidly desire?

What I am seeking to make plain is simply this: that over and above and independent of those things which mankind generally

regards as the basis of satisfaction and the chief end of life there are sources of abiding treasure which the world and the flesh cannot supply. To this wealth education should give us access. It should be the unrestricted heritage of the cultured and enlightened mind.

But education, in the limited sense of that term, as many have discovered, in itself is not sufficient for this end. It requires something more to make it perfect and complete. That something is the element of religion. This is not the moralizing of outworn dogmatism or the sentiment of simple, undeveloped minds. It is the judgment of thoughtful men. It is a conviction that is now becoming more definite, more positive, more aggressive among intellectual leaders everywhere. There is the sound of a going in the tops of the mulberry trees and one does not have to be an astute interpreter of educational movements to know that the college and university world today is turning to religion as well as to laboratories and the phenomena of psychology to find the true medium for the interpretation and understanding of life. There is a new quest for God, and I, for one, am bold enough to say that in the measure that this quest succeeds scholarship will be made fruitful instead of sterile, the missing ingredient will be discovered to give perfection to education, the treasures of the universe will be open, without let or hindrance, to the eager mind.

Never shall the lives of those who pursue this quest be drab or commonplace; never shall they be blighted by the breath of cynicism nor rendered futile by despair; never shall the riddle of the universe or the dark perplexities of human life cast them down nor make them afraid. They are freed forever from the bondage of these things. But the quickening spirit of the living God shall dwell within their hearts and Christ Himself shall give them light. In His presence they shall find confidence and strength. They shall mount up with wings as eagles; they shall run and not be weary; they shall walk and not faint. From this knowledge shall come the fairest flower of scholarship; the choicest treasure of educated minds.

THE DEAN OF THE SMALL COLLEGE

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THE deans, whose functions, preparation and administrative position are analyzed in "The Smaller College" study, are unusually well trained academically and culturally, but, from a professional standpoint, are very poorly equipped for their work.

In this section of the survey concerning the dean, 100 colleges were chosen for study on the basis of enrolment; in order to limit the study to the small college, only those with from 200-600 students were considered. There are in this group institutions of various types—men's, women's and, coeducational colleges, which have a wide geographic distribution through thirty-five states and the District of Columbia. Such diversity of type and location eliminates the possibility of too limited a view of this administrative officer.

Since the deans are, as later studies will show, very extensively involved in problems of an academic nature, it would be most unusual if they did not have not only their A.B. degrees but also advanced academic work. All the deans in this study have their first degree, and many have several additional degrees as indicated below. The length of time of their graduate training has a range of from 1-7 years; a median of 2.34; a mean of 2.7; and a mode of 3 years. Three deans reported no graduate work, 20 one year, 10 two years, 42 three years, 14 four years, 4 five years, 4 six years, 1 seven years.

The following earned degrees are reported: A.B. 4, B.S. 3, M.S. 6, M.A. 42, B.D. 7, S.T.B. 1, Ed.D. 2, Th.D. 1, Ph.D. 32 (only the highest degree held by each dean is indicated). Sixty-five of the deans have had three years or more of graduate work; 43 of these have their Ph.D. degrees or, according to academic evaluating organizations, its equivalent.

The deans have carried on their advanced study in a number of different academic fields. In this era with its emphasis on

* The data for this report were prepared by Dean Milner, who, in collaboration with the director of "The Smaller College" study, analyzed this area.

personnel work and training it is noteworthy that the deans, who in their official capacities deal fundamentally with human problems, have not been trained more extensively in psychology and sociology and that the classics have been the postgraduate academic major of the largest number. The position of dean evolved because of the ever increasing duties of the president, such as the directing of large financial campaigns for increasing the endowment or for the erection of new buildings. The president needed some one to take charge of the academic problems on the campus during his comparatively long periods of absence. In the beginning these duties were generally assigned to a committee. Since the chairmanship of this committee, frequently called the curriculum committee, involved the expenditure of more than the usual amount of time and energy required for committee chairmanships, it was necessary to assign it to that member of the faculty who had a comparatively light teaching load. In addition, the chairman had to be a person having sound academic standards. Just at this particular time in the academic history of the United States the demand for the classics was declining. Perhaps there could have been no more adequate appointment than that of the professor of classics to this chairmanship. As the duties of chairman increased, the concept of an administrative officer for this work evolved, and the professor of Greek and Latin, who accidentally started to function in this field, continued the work with the new title, dean.

As would be expected from their backgrounds and training, the deans have had academic honors and honorary degrees conferred upon them, although the number of awards is much smaller than might have been anticipated. Only 39 deans reported any such recognition of their scholarship and work; 13 are members of Phi Beta Kappa; 8 had received scholarships or fellowships; there had been 27 honorary degrees conferred upon the members of the group as follows: M.A., 2; L.H.D., 4; LL.D., 7; Sc.D., 4; Litt.D., 6; D.D., 3; Ph.D., 1. The statistics seem to indicate that the dean has an excellent academic background.

The deans, as a group, have availed themselves of the cultural advantages of foreign study and travel. Forty-four reported the fact that they had travelled abroad. As in all other areas of this inquiry, there was great diversity in the length of such trips

and the number of different countries visited; one member of the group lived abroad for ten years and had made two trips around the world; others were, as might be expected, members of the tourist groups that visited several European countries during summer vacations.

When the foreign study that 17 deans have carried on is scrutinized with the European method of postgraduate work in mind, it does not seem to be very cosmopolitan in character. Here again there is great diversity. One dean studied two months in one European university. The dean who had the most extensive experience in European universities spent six years as a student in five European universities. Nevertheless the dean has a more extensive cultural background than his colleagues, if foreign study and travel are used as criteria for this observation.

Only 32 of the 100 deans reported any special professional courses, which were taken to prepare them for their work as dean of the college. The description of this professional work ranges from attendance at a "registrar's institute" to a list of carefully selected and related courses as follows: (1) Professional duties of deans and registrars; (2) Administration of student personnel in higher education; (3) Student counselling; (4) Educational and vocational guidance; (5) Problems of psychiatry.

Twelve of the 32 deans reporting on professional work simply recorded "educational courses" and one stated "I took 18 semester hours in various education courses, none of which seem to have been of any value as a preparation for the work as dean." It seems surprising after an analysis of the multitudinous functions and duties of deans that educational institutions should be failing so completely to meet the needs of this professional group, as is indicated by the following quotation, "I completed about 35 quarter hours in school administration and 30 hours in psychology, graduate work, as minors for my doctorate. Perhaps the most useful course taken was in statistical methods."

It must be observed that the deans themselves in spite of their years of experience do not have a clearly formulated idea of the type of training that is essential for their profession. To quote

one dean, "All past experience is of value, whether directly or indirectly bearing upon contact with educational problems or young people." Another says "No general professional courses; long experience and committee work was valuable preparation." Nineteen deans indicated some concept of the meaning of professional training for their office and had received limited professional study at the State University of Iowa, Ohio State University, University of Chicago and Columbia University. Columbia University seems, according to the reports from the deans, to be leading the way in giving desirable professional training through its courses designed especially to prepare the dean of the Liberal Arts College.

It is obvious that very few institutions that should be giving this professional training are fulfilling their responsibility. It is also clear that the deans who should be attaining a professional background have not studied the matter carefully enough to discard the trial and error methods evolved through individual experience. One dean frankly states, "What training I have for the duties of dean has been derived entirely through experience."

The deans are well trained in the work of the college department in which they teach—92 per cent of them do teach. They have been selected because of their high academic standards, their committee work, their comparatively light teaching load. It would seem, however, that college presidents and deans are satisfied to have met and to meet the general qualifications stated by a college executive, "The dean should be known for friendship, sympathy and practical wisdom." Unquestionably the success of deans depends upon their possession of these highly desirable characteristics. The deans need to be qualified, as they are, academically and culturally, but it is equally essential that they avail themselves of the rapidly accumulating resources of the social sciences, which would greatly enrich their professional service.

A COOPERATIVE PROGRAM FOR TEACHER TRAINING

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COLLEGE PRESIDENTS IN PENNSYLVANIA

IN Pennsylvania there are thirteen state teachers' colleges.

These were founded fifty or more years ago as state normal schools, under a law by which the schools were owned locally and assisted by state appropriations. About ten years ago the state acquired these institutions and within the past five years they have all been elevated to the rank of teachers' colleges. In a few instances additions and improvements were made to the equipment but for the most part the advance was made merely by introducing four-year curricula, although the old two-year curricula were continued. A higher salary scale was also prescribed, but this resulted in no great number of changes in personnel.

Following the induction of a new state administration in 1918, the state school system was greatly improved. New standards for the certification of teachers were established. The professional requirements for high school teaching included besides a minimum amount of work in education and practice teaching, a four-year post high school academic course. To provide these teachers the state called upon the liberal arts colleges of the commonwealth. Most of these institutions made the necessary arrangements and in the intervening years there has been an ample supply of secondary school teachers provided by the colleges. The normal schools were overcrowded with candidates aiming to meet the new requirements for elementary teaching and for certification in special subjects.

Recently there has been a great surplus of teachers, especially in the secondary field composed almost wholly of graduates of the liberal arts colleges. But this surplus is being augmented by the graduation of rapidly increasing numbers from the state teachers' colleges who are qualifying for certification for high school teaching. The state teachers' colleges now carry four-year curricula for preparation for both elementary, and high school teaching, but since the salary schedule provides greater

remuneration for high school than for elementary school teaching, the larger proportion of the students enrolled for four-year courses in these institutions at the present time are in the secondary or high school curriculum. When this became known early in the year, the education departments in the liberal arts colleges which were already having great difficulty in finding positions for their graduates, became apprehensive as to their very existence, to say nothing of their belief that this heavy inroad on the high school field by the teachers' college would lower the quality of secondary school teaching.

There was agitation in some quarters for legislative enactment that would preserve inviolate the field of high school teacher preparation to the liberal arts colleges to whom it was originally assigned and by whom an ample supply of satisfactorily trained teachers had been supplied.

The College Presidents' Association of Pennsylvania held firmly that the preparation of high school teachers should be preserved as their exclusive field, but chose to have the matter arranged if possible by friendly counsel with the heads of the state teachers' colleges. Accordingly through the good offices of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, committees of five presidents were appointed from each group. These representatives met as a joint committee, and after several sessions, submitted to the State Superintendent for presentation to the State Council of Education, the following recommendations:

1. That the teachers colleges shall concentrate their work on the elementary field and shall engage in the preparation of secondary teachers (except in special fields) only to the extent and under the conditions prescribed by the State Council of Education for experimental work.
2. That the liberal arts colleges shall concentrate their work on the academic preparation for senior high school teachers and shall engage in the training of elementary teachers only to the extent and under the conditions that may be prescribed by the State Council of Education for experimental work.
3. That the junior high schools and the special fields of the senior high schools shall be a zone of cooperation within which both the teachers colleges and the liberal arts colleges shall serve. Since careful study is needed before a division of labor in these

fields can be proposed, the Joint Committee recommends that this question be referred to the commission hereinafter provided.

4. That there be an equal minimum salary schedule for elementary and secondary teachers; equal qualifications entitling to the same salary level. The elementary teachers are not to be discriminated against because of subject matter taught or grade occupied.

5. That standard training shall be four years for elementary teachers, and five years for senior high school teachers. The questions raised by this recommendation are referred to the commission hereinafter provided.

6. That eighteen hours of education be retained as the required amount until the fifth year can be put in operation. It is the recommendation of the committee that both the four year and the five year levels be adopted at the earliest possible date.

7. That the question of extending certification from one field to another be referred for further study to the commission hereinafter provided.

8. That a permanent commission be established consisting of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction and representatives of the teacher training institutions of the commonwealth.

It is expected that the permanent commission asked for in the last recommendation will function in an advisory capacity for the guidance of teacher preparation in all its aspects and for meeting problems like the present one before they become critical.

A STUDY OF ACCREDITED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN THE STATE OF PENNSYLVANIA

JONAS E. WAGNER

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

Editorial Note: The Director of Statistical Research of the Department of Education of Pennsylvania has issued an illuminating report of Pennsylvania colleges accredited by the State Council of Education in 1931-32 from which the following abridged extracts are drawn.

THE number of full-time, regular session students in 54 accredited colleges and universities of the State of Pennsylvania in 1931-32 was 38,846 men and 13,648 women, or a total of 52,494.¹ This number shows a slight increase of five-tenths of one per cent over the registration of the previous year, namely, 52,225. Similar figures for the country as a whole according to Walters² show a gain of six-tenths of one per cent. The enrolments of the last three or four years indicate somewhat that a plateau in numbers is being maintained in the higher institutions in Pennsylvania, which fact agrees almost exactly with reports of colleges and universities throughout the United States.

Of the total number of 52,494 students, 10,705 were from other states, 311 from other countries, and the remaining 41,478 were from Pennsylvania. Expressed in a different way, 20.4 per cent were from other states, and less than one per cent from other countries. This compares favorably with country-wide figures to the effect that 23.7 per cent of the student body of a state in normal times comes from other states.³

The relative density of the college population in Pennsylvania, exclusive of its teachers colleges, is shown by the fact that at the present time there are enrolled in its accredited colleges and universities approximately 5.8 students per 1,000 of population, which compares exactly with the figures for the whole country.

¹ In addition to this number there were 10,408 full-time students of collegiate grade in the fourteen state teachers colleges.

² Walters, Raymond. "Statistics of Registration in American Universities and Colleges," *School and Society*, Vol. 34, December 12, 1931, pp. 783-796.

³ "Residence and Migration of University and College Students," United States Bureau of Education *Bulletin*, No. 11, 1926, pp. 17-18 and 41-42.

This means that the typical community of one thousand population has from five to six students in attendance at college.

Of the 52,494 full-time students, 1,454 (in five institutions) were classified as doing preparatory work, 41,439 were matriculated in collegiate studies, 3,179 pursued graduate courses, and 6,422 received instruction in professional schools, covering law, theology, medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, and veterinary medicine. A total of 333 women were included in preparatory courses, 11,361 in collegiate, 1,180 in graduate, and 774 in professional schools.

The number of full-time students classified by curriculums totaled:

Arts and sciences	18,795	Journalism	122
Architecture	493	Law	1,607
Chemistry	412	Library	124
Commerce	7,491	Medicine	1,360
Dentistry	1,162	Music	723
Education	5,246	Pharmacy	1,096
Engineering	6,641	Theology	398
Fine arts	289	Veterinary medicine	131
Forestry	155	All others	5,231
Home economics	1,018	Total	52,494

TABLE I.—*Degrees Conferred*

Degree	Per cent conferred	
	1920 ^a	1932
Baccalaureate:		
Arts and sciences	59.9	45.8
Architecture	1.8	1.0
Commerce	13.8	16.8
Education	3.3	15.6
Engineering	18.9	12.0
Fine arts	1.0
Forestry2	.2
Home economics	1.2	1.9
Journalism
Library work9
Music9	1.5
All others	2.7
Total	100.0	100.0

^a U. S. Bureau of Education.

In order to show possible trends in the character of courses pursued during recent years, the accompanying table of per cents of degrees conferred is submitted.

There were 3,290 men and 778 women full-time faculty members, and 2,001 men and 255 women for part-time, thus making a total of 4,068 full-time and 2,256 part-time members of the instructional staff.

Classified by degrees held, it is found that there were 524, or 8.3 per cent, instructors having no degree, 2,050, or 32.4 per cent, with a bachelor degree only, 1,674, or 26.5 per cent, with a master degree, and 2,076, or 32.8 per cent, who had won their doctorate.

Average salaries reported by each institution when summarized as state totals are indicated in the following table:

TABLE II.—*Salaries*

Position	Average salary	Range in salaries	
		Pennsylvania	United States ⁵
Dean	\$4,508	\$2,500-10,000	\$
Professor	3,461	1,800- 7,100	2,800-5,000
Associate Professor ..	2,993	1,500- 5,500	2,400-4,500
Assistant Professor ..	2,542	1,500- 4,500	1,800-3,500
Instructor	1,926	1,600- 3,500	1,200-2,500
Assistant	1,014	500- 1,600

The total amount of productive endowment reported for the year was \$89,974,822, a decrease of \$397,356, or less than one-half of one per cent, over the previous year. Only 5 institutions reported no asset of this character. The range in amount extended from no endowment reported for 3 colleges to \$18,955,000, the highest.

Total expenditures amounted to \$35,796,980, of which \$5,107,513 was charged to administration, \$14,911,750 to instruction, \$1,293,650 to repairs, \$3,140,320 to capital outlay, and \$11,343,747 for all other purposes. Expressed in terms of a per cent, the distribution was 14.3 per cent for administration, 41.7 per

⁵ *College and University Administration*, Lindsay and Holland, pp. 412-416.

cent for instruction, 3.6 per cent for repairs, 8.7 per cent for capital outlay, and 31.7 per cent for all other purposes.

Twenty-one institutions out of a total of 54 were not able to balance their budgets during the year.

The total value of all property, including buildings, grounds, and equipment, was \$149,346,029.

The most frequent tuition rate reported was \$300.00.

The median number of semester hours for graduation was 128.

While no attempt is made to compute per student costs with a high degree of refinement, it is believed that the following plan gives in a general way the relative costs of the respective institutions. The plan is based on the division of the total expenditures less capital outlay by the number of full-time students plus one-sixth of the summer session students. When computed the figures represent the cost per weighted student, not including part-time students other than those registered in summer session courses. It should be noted that all figures used do not provide for part-time instruction during the regular session. The following table shows the results:

TABLE III.—*Relative Costs*

Number of institutions	Cost per weighted student
5	\$ 100-\$ 250
22	251- 500
16	501- 750
4	751- 1,000
3	1,001- 1,250
3	1,251- 1,500
—	1,501- 1,750
1	1,751- 2,000

The lowest cost reported was \$162 per student in a small institution, while the highest was \$1,955 in a school of average size. The average cost was \$586. Coeducational institutions on the whole appear to be the least costly, while the women's colleges were the most expensive. The figures show an average cost per weighted student in coeducational institutions of \$536, in men's schools of \$581, and \$766 in women's colleges. Ex-

pressed in general terms, the men's schools cost 8 per cent and the women's schools 45 per cent more per student than the institutions enrolling both sexes.

The figures indicate that 28, or approximately one-half of the 54 institutions, have less than 25,000 volumes each in their libraries. The institution having the largest number of volumes in its libraries, namely, 774,000, contained practically as many books as 38 other colleges whose libraries were under 50,000 each. It appears from the figures submitted that the typical college library in Pennsylvania has approximately 24,000 volumes for use by its students.

The New York *Herald-Tribune* tells how Coolidge refused an invitation to squander the people's money. Two Amherst graduates attending the international radio-telegraphic conference in session in Madrid decided to celebrate "the first annual dinner of the Amherst Club of Madrid." Sixty-five delegates attended the affair at the Palace Hotel.

The hosts decided it was necessary to provide a climax for the party and they sent a long cable to former President Coolidge, an Amherst graduate, explaining the situation and asking him to send a suitable message of greeting to be read at the dinner. They emphasized that the delegates had the privilege of free transmission of messages from Madrid to the United States and of receiving replies. Therefore they told the former President, by way of hinting for a sizable communication to the dinner, that his reply would not cost anything.

The dinner was a great success. There were long but entertaining speeches and songs rendered with gusto. Then came the big moment, one of the hosts read the message from Mr. Coolidge.

It said: "Greetings."

A STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ACCORDING TO TYPE OF CONTROL AND SIZE OF STUDENT BODY

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FINANCIAL adversity has overtaken higher education along with other human enterprises in the United States. Any analysis of higher education, no matter how limited in its scope, therefore, should prove opportune at this time, if it bears in even a remote way upon cost.

Higher education may be analyzed from many angles. It is proposed here to consider only two of them, type of control and size of student body.

The data on which this analysis is based consist of statistics on universities, colleges and professional schools collected by the U. S. Office of Education. The figures are for the year 1929-30, none later being available. While it is recognized that the data represent a year before the force of the economic depression had descended on the institutions, it is nevertheless believed that this fact does not vitiate the figures for the purposes of the present study. On the contrary, probably a more valid analysis may result than if later figures were used because the factors being studied are concerned with the permanent status of higher education, and bear only indirectly upon the financial difficulties of the institutions.

The U. S. Office of Education's statistics for 1929-30 report data for 762 degree-granting institutions in the United States excluding teachers colleges and colleges for negroes. In classifying them according to type of control three main groupings have been made. The first grouping consists of the publicly controlled institutions, the second privately controlled non-denominational institutions, and the third privately controlled denominational institutions. Segregation of the institutions according to the size of student bodies has been made on the following basis: Those having 1,000 or more students, 500 to 999 students, 200 to 499 students, and fewer than 200 students.

Figures showing the number of institutions, students, undergraduate and graduate degrees granted, and amounts of expenditures for resident instruction have been compiled. These data are presented in Table 1. They are then expressed in percentages in Table 2.

TABLE 1. NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS, STUDENTS, AND DEGREES GRANTED WITH AMOUNTS OF EXPENDITURES FOR RESIDENT INSTRUCTION FOR DEGREE-GRANTING UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES AND PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS, EXCLUDING TEACHERS COLLEGES AND COLLEGES FOR NEGROES, 1929-30.¹

Type of control and size of student body	Institutions	Students	Degrees granted		Expenditures for resident instruction
			Under-graduate	Graduate	
<i>Publicly Controlled Institutions:</i>					
1000 or more students ..	83	335,973	41,114	6,210	\$ 72,963,352
500 to 999 " ..	13	9,573	1,178	26	2,225,975
200 to 499 " ..	9	3,295	387	12	1,044,130
Fewer than 200 " ..	9	1,405	150	512,991
TOTAL	114	350,246	42,829	6,248	76,746,448
<i>Privately Controlled Non-Denominational Institutions:</i>					
1000 or more students ..	54	266,335	29,976	8,841	62,759,859
500 to 999 " ..	58	39,542	6,211	279	9,604,749
200 to 499 " ..	74	25,505	4,329	180	5,286,561
Fewer than 200 " ..	36	4,886	993	47	827,417
TOTAL	222	336,268	41,509	9,347	78,478,586
<i>Privately Controlled Denominational Institutions:</i>					
1000 or more students ..	36	79,339	9,635	1,308	8,542,283
500 to 999 " ..	62	40,914	6,019	273	5,305,184
200 to 499 " ..	197	67,212	8,943	268	9,845,885
Fewer than 200 " ..	131	14,170	1,693	106	2,869,754
TOTAL	426	201,635	26,290	1,955	26,563,106
GRAND TOTAL	762	888,149	110,628	17,550	181,788,140

¹ This table was compiled by Miss Nathalie Leveque from data contained in Office of Education Bulletin 1931, No. 20, Vol. II, Chapter IV. Statistics of Universities, Colleges and Professional Schools, 1929-30. pp. 60-93, 104-158, and 235-269.

Explanation of Data

To clarify the figures contained in Table 1, an explanation is necessary concerning certain headings. The column headed "Students," comprises those enrolled in preparatory, collegiate and professional branches of the institutions during the regular academic year. Students enrolled in the summer sessions, correspondence and extension courses are excluded. Under the heading, "Expenditures for Resident Instruction," are included salaries of the teaching staff and teaching deans, other expenses of teaching staff, including books and supplies used for instruction. Such items as administrative costs, library, extension teaching, organized research, and maintenance of buildings and grounds are excluded.

Special attention must be called to the fact that the number of institutions reporting on the various items in the table are not the same in all instances. For example, there are 222 privately controlled non-denominational institutions, as shown by Column 2. All of these furnished information on number of students, while only 208 of them furnished information on the amounts of expenditures for resident instruction. Similar discrepancies exist between other items in the table. These tend to invalidate the figures for comparative purposes. Since such defects appear inevitable in any comprehensive collection of data on higher education where reports from institutions are voluntary, and since the errors offset each other to a considerable extent, the results will probably not be greatly affected. Any conclusions drawn from the ensuing material, however, should be interpreted in the light of this situation.

Number of Institutions

The distribution of institutions according to type of control, as shown in Column 2 of Table 2, reveals some interesting facts. A relatively small proportion of the institutions are publicly controlled. Approximately 56 out of every 100 institutions are under private denominational control while 29 out of every 100 are non-denominational but private in their control.

Of institutions having 500 or more students, the publicly controlled comprise approximately 13 per cent of the total, privately controlled non-denominational, 15 per cent, and privately con-

TABLE 2. THE FACTS OF TABLE 1 EXPRESSED IN PERCENTAGES

Type of control and size of student body	Institutions	Students	Degrees granted		Expenditures for resident instruction
			Under-graduate	Graduate	
<i>Publicly Controlled Institutions:</i>					
1000 or more students ..	10.89	37.83	37.16	35.38	40.14
500 to 999 " ..	1.70	1.08	1.07	.15	1.22
200 to 499 " ..	1.18	.37	.35	.07	.58
Fewer than 200 " ..	1.18	.16	.1428
TOTAL	14.95	39.44	38.72	35.60	42.22
<i>Privately Controlled Non-Denominational Institutions:</i>					
1000 or more students ..	7.08	29.99	27.10	50.38	34.52
500 to 999 " ..	7.61	4.45	5.61	1.59	5.28
200 to 499 " ..	9.71	2.87	3.91	1.02	2.91
Fewer than 200 " ..	4.73	.55	.90	.27	.46
TOTAL	29.13	37.86	37.52	53.26	43.17
<i>Privately Controlled Denominational Institutions:</i>					
1000 or more students ..	4.73	8.93	8.71	7.45	4.70
500 to 999 " ..	8.14	4.61	5.44	1.56	2.92
200 to 499 " ..	25.86	7.57	8.08	1.53	5.41
Fewer than 200 " ..	17.19	1.59	1.53	.60	1.58
TOTAL	55.92	22.70	23.76	11.14	14.61
GRAND TOTAL	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

trolled denominational, 13 per cent, a total of 41 per cent for all types. The large proportion of denominational institutions have small student bodies. There are approximately 23 per cent or almost one-fourth of the institutions of all types with student bodies of fewer than 200 students. Of these approximately three-fourths are under denominational control. Very few institutions with fewer than 200 students are publicly controlled.

Students

Although the number of publicly controlled institutions is small, they enroll a relatively large proportion of the students. With approximately 15 out of every 100 institutions publicly controlled, approximately 40 out of every 100 students attend

the publicly controlled institutions. Non-denominational institutions, which include 29 out of every 100 institutions, enroll approximately 38 out of every 100 students while denominational institutions comprising 56 out of every 100 enroll approximately 23 out of every 100 students. Thus over one-half of all the institutions are denominationally controlled, but they enroll less than one-fourth of the students.

Of the total students, approximately 39 per cent attend publicly controlled institutions with student bodies of 500 or more students. An additional 34 per cent are enrolled in privately controlled non-denominational institutions of 500 or more students and 14 per cent in denominational institutions with 500 or more students. A total of 87 per cent of all students, therefore, are in institutions of 500 or more students. While institutions with student bodies of fewer than 200 students constitute more than one-fifth of all the institutions, only approximately two out of every 100 students attend such institutions.

Degrees Granted

Publicly controlled institutions of 500 or more students grant approximately 38 out of every 100 undergraduate degrees; privately controlled non-denominational institutions of this size 33 out of every 100; and private denominational institutions 14 out of every 100. Publicly controlled institutions of fewer than 200 students grant .14 per cent of all undergraduate degrees, privately controlled non-denominational institutions .90 per cent, and denominational institutions 1.53 per cent. In other words, fewer than three out of every 100 undergraduate degrees are granted by the institutions with fewer than 200 students.

The distribution of the graduate degrees is of special significance. Approximately 97 per cent of all the graduate degrees are granted by institutions having student bodies of 500 or more students with approximately 52 per cent granted by privately controlled non-denominational institutions of this size. Publicly controlled institutions of 500 or more students grant approximately 36 per cent of the graduate degrees while privately controlled denominational institutions of this size grant approximately 9 per cent. This leaves but 3 per cent of the graduate

degrees which are granted by institutions with fewer than 500 students.

Expenditures for Resident Instruction

Of every \$100 expended for resident instruction, the publicly controlled institutions expend approximately \$42, privately controlled non-denominational institutions \$43, and denominational institutions \$15. Expenditures of the denominational institutions for resident instruction is proportionately on a much lower scale than those under other types of control when considered in relation to students enrolled. Publicly controlled institutions with 500 or more students expend approximately \$41 out of every \$100 expended for resident instruction, privately controlled non-denominational institutions of this size \$40, and privately controlled denominational institutions of the same size \$8, a total of \$89 out of every \$100 expended. Smaller institutions with student bodies of fewer than 200 students expend only approximately \$2 out of every \$100 of total expenditures for resident instruction, although this group constitutes more than one-fifth of all the institutions.

Since the number of students enrolled determines to a large extent the amount expended for resident instruction, a comparison between the percentages for these two items is of interest. As shown in Columns 3 and 6 of Table 2, publicly controlled institutions enroll approximately 39 per cent of the students and expend 42 per cent of the expenditures for resident instruction. The privately controlled non-denominational institutions with slightly less than 38 per cent of the students, spend 43 per cent of the money. The denominational institutions with nearly 23 per cent of the students spend less than 15 per cent of the money.

Summary

The foregoing statistical analysis pertains to 762 degree-granting institutions of higher education in the United States, (exclusive of teachers colleges and colleges for negroes) based on type of control and size of student body.

Publicly controlled institutions and privately controlled non-denominational institutions with student bodies of 500 or more students occupy a dominant position. Although comparatively

few in number, these institutions enroll approximately 73 out of every 100 students, grant 71 out of every 100 undergraduate degrees, 88 out of every 100 graduate degrees, and expend \$81 out of every \$100 of expenditures for resident instruction.

The smaller institutions with fewer than 200 students including those under all types of control comprise 23 out of every 100 institutions. Notwithstanding this fact, they enroll only approximately 2 out of every 100 students, grant less than three out of every 100 undergraduate degrees, and expend about \$2 out of every \$100 spent for resident instruction.

Considering the financial difficulties now being experienced by nearly all higher educational institutions, the large number of small classes required in the junior and senior years of the curricula in small colleges,¹ the lower salary scale prevailing in small colleges as a rule,² and the growing recognition of the junior college in American higher education, the figures presented in the foregoing analysis would seem to indicate the need of a study by each institution having a very small enrollment of whether or not it should continue to maintain its senior college division.

In a letter conveying his regrets that he was detained from addressing a group of Barnard alumnae on international relations by the pressure of business, Professor Raymond Moley said recently: ". . . I feel that my chief interest is the business of teaching and that in so far as I engage in activities outside of this, it is, in part, because I want to do a better job of teaching by dealing at first hand with the materials which I discuss in the classroom, and, in part, because I want to put to the test of hard reality the views which I hold."

¹ For data on small classes see Reeves, Floyd W., and others. *The Liberal Arts College*, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago. Pp. 275-278.

² See Badger, Henry G. "The Size of Student Body and College Financing." *BULLETIN of the Association of American Colleges*, November, 1932. Pp. 441-442.

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PRESENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE COLLEGE BUILDING PROGRAM

JOHN O. MERRILL, A. I. A.

PRESENT conditions in the building industry offer unusual opportunity for the conservative building project and especially for the building programs of our colleges and universities. This statement will be questioned by those who are familiar with the almost universal economic stress which present conditions have imposed on the colleges and perhaps should be qualified. It is true that few colleges have funds available for immediate construction and that the opportunities of the present situation are for the planning of a building program, for the consideration and study of probable trends in building costs, and for the adoption of a plan of procedure whereby the colleges may avoid paying the high cost of construction produced by another wave of commercial and speculative building.

The ten-year period following the war was one of tremendous building activity marked by a corresponding increase in the cost of construction. Building materials were sold at prices commensurate with the high price level of other commodities. Labor demanded and obtained the highest wages in history with an accompanying labor efficiency which reached its lowest level. Competition for labor was so keen that contractors were often forced to pay bonuses over the high wage scale or face costly delays. High cost, however, did not stop the speculative building project. Loans were readily obtainable, based not on the actual cost of building and land, but on probable future income which in turn was based on the high rentals of prosperity. The more conservative and legitimate building projects consequently suffered. Colleges, churches, hospitals, and similar institutions which had accumulated building funds often found these funds inadequate for the purpose intended and in many cases were forced to postpone their programs.

Since 1929 building activity has declined until, at the present time, the industry is in great distress. Building permits in the entire city of Chicago from January 1st to March 18th of this

year amounted to only \$300,000. This figure represents a decline in volume, not of 50 or 60 per cent. as has been suffered in some basic industries, but a decline of *more than 99 per cent.* Surely, here is an industry which has touched bottom. The result has been a temporary level of building costs in keeping with a prostrate industry. The level is necessarily temporary because it is a level at which the industry can not long survive. It is an emergency level at which manufacturers sell their products at less than cost to avoid the greater loss of closing shops and quarries; and a level at which labor, in spite of existing wage contracts, accepts voluntary reductions in an attempt to stimulate work and relieve a desperate unemployment situation. Labor in Chicago has accepted a 20 per cent. cut (with negotiations now pending for a still lower temporary scale), but contractors state that the actual cost of labor is reduced nearly 50 per cent. below 1929 costs owing to the increased efficiency of the workmen under the stress of competition for the few jobs available. It may be conservatively estimated that the general cost of construction has dropped at least 40 per cent. since 1929.

So much for the past and the present, but what about the future? The present cost level being a losing game for manufacturers and contractors and bare living wage for the few workmen fortunate enough to have a job, it seems reasonable to expect a considerable increase in costs with even a moderate resumption of building activity. Probably it will be many years, if ever, before the cost level of 1929 is reached, but a rapid increase to a point 10 or 15 per cent. above present costs may be conservatively predicted.

How can the college with a needed building program take advantage of the present situation? The recovery may come sooner than we anticipate, and with it will come a rising market in building materials and labor. The problem is that new buildings, unlike many commodities, can not be bought on a moment's notice. Requirements must be studied; sketches must be prepared and considered; plans must be drawn. The cost of the building will be determined by the prevailing costs, not at the time when the architect is called in and plans are started, but at the time when plans and specifications are ready for bids. In the case of an

important building this interval of time required for careful study and planning may be as much as six months. During a rising market six months' delay in letting contracts may cost more than the architect's entire fee.

The solution of this problem for the college with a real building program in view within the next five years is to employ an architect now, proceed with the preparation of plans, and build with the least possible delay when funds are available. The advantages to be gained by such a program are many and the immediate cost is comparatively small. The usual procedure of waiting until all arrangements for financing and building are completed before attacking the architectural problem is likely to prove costly and furthermore will not be conducive to careful planning. Even the most reasonable client will be impatient of months spent in the study of his problem if costs are rising at the rate of one or two per cent. each month.

Saving money is not the only argument for planning future buildings now. Perhaps it is not even the most important argument. The architectural quality of our college buildings should be in keeping with our high educational ideals, for good architecture affects the subconscious mind of every student who spends four years on the campus during a formative period in his development. The achievement of a building of outstanding architectural merit is not wholly a matter of genius. It is also a matter of hard and painstaking work, of sufficient time to study and re-study plan, elevation, details, and materials. Those of us who, during the years of feverish building activity, were trying to keep up with the demands of commercial building and, at the same time, attempting to devote the proper time and care to college building problems, realize now the difficulties under which we have been working.

Architecture is an expression and a lasting record of our civilization and perhaps the two outstanding characteristics of our times are our commercial development and our educational system. In the skyscraper we have achieved an expression of commerce which, good or bad, is at least distinctive. The expression in architecture of our educational ideals cannot be an echo of our commercial architecture—nor can it be a lifeless copy of

college buildings of the past. If, as many believe, our principal building activity of the next decade is to be along the line of public and educational buildings, here is a great opportunity to really study the college building program with the care and thoroughness which the problem demands. The solution cannot be adequately reached in a sixty day period of hurried effort preceding a dead-line on which contracts must be let. Our educational leaders can, by their cooperation and foresight, do much toward the development of an American collegiate architecture consistent with the ideals of modern education which they have fostered.

ARCHITECTURAL PLANNING OF THE AMERICAN COLLEGE

PRACTICAL application of many of the suggestions made by Mr. Merrill in his article, printed above, will be found in ARCHITECTURAL PLANNING OF THE AMERICAN COLLEGE, by J. Fredrick Larson and Archie M. Palmer, which has just come from the press. This volume, produced under the auspices of the Association's Committee on College Architecture and College Instruction in the Fine Arts, has been designed as a reference work on the fundamental aspects of college architecture in its relation to the educational program of the liberal arts college.

In preparing the text and in selecting the descriptive material the authors have had in mind the fourfold aim of:

- (1) presenting the history and accomplishments of the architectural advisory service of the Association of American Colleges;
- (2) stimulating, encouraging, and helping those concerned with college development programs;
- (3) appraising the principles involved in campus planning and the designing of college buildings of lasting worth; and
- (4) illustrating tested procedures which can be readily adopted for guidance in individual situations.

Copies of the book may be obtained at \$2.00 each from the publishers, the McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd Street, New York City. The usual discount to libraries will be allowed. (For Table of Contents, see announcement on inside back cover.)

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THE THIRTY-SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE

JOSEPH H. APPLE
PRESIDENT OF HOOD COLLEGE

THE thirty-seventh Annual Meeting of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, held in Philadelphia, April 7 and 8, 1933, was generally pronounced to be one of the finest in recent years. The general topic, "American Policy in the Pacific," was most timely. The Academy was addressed by the following speakers: President Ernest Minor Patterson, Joseph Barnes, Edward C. Carter of the American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, George E. Sokolsky, Theodore Marburg, John E. Orchard of Columbia University, Boyd Carpenter of Georgetown University, T. A. Bisson, Specialist in Far Eastern Affairs of the Foreign Policy Association, Henry Kittredge Norton, William R. Castle, Jr., former Under Secretary of State of the United States, Roy N. Akagi of Columbia University, Tyler Dennett of Princeton University, Grover Clark, Frank H. Eldredge, Elbert D. Thomas, Harry Bartow Hawes, W. Cameron Forbes, Newton W. Gilbert, Camilo Osias, Roland S. Morris, S. K. Ratcliffe. Space permits only a few excerpts from the exceedingly stimulating proceedings which will be presented in full in *The Annals* published by the Academy.

Professor Orchard said in part:

The question may well be raised whether the present venture of Japan upon the mainland of Asia promises to contribute to the economic strength of the country and thus to national security. Japanese security in the final analysis depends not upon military power but upon the ability of the nation to develop a sound economic structure that will continue to absorb the rapidly increasing population. This increase amounting to approximately 900,000 annually in recent years has become the paramount problem of Japan. It is an increase that cannot be provided for in agriculture already developed almost to its limit nor is the solution of the problem to be found in migration either within the Japanese Empire or to foreign lands.

Since the opening of the country some seventy-five years ago, Japan has turned to the development of manufacturing

industries partly to provide a means of defense against Western encroachments and partly to meet the pressure of the increasing population. Though notable progress has been made, industrialization has been hampered by Japan's poverty in certain essential raw materials, particularly petroleum, coking coal and iron ore. Only to a limited degree are the deficiencies supplied by Japanese possessions and even if complete and permanent control over Manchuria is established Japanese manufacturing industries must continue to depend upon foreign countries for a substantial part of their raw materials. To meet the cost of such imports and to correct the persistent adverse trade balance, an important consideration in the international financial position of Japan, there must be an expansion of the Japanese export trade. At the present time it is limited to a few commodities,—raw silk and textile products,—and it flows to two markets,—the United States and the continent of Asia. Of these two markets, the continent of Asia, despite its many drawbacks, holds out the greater promise of expansion. It has a huge population whose purchasing power, now small, may be expected to increase and Japan enjoys a proximity both in culture and location not shared by the industrial nations of America and Europe. But if trade is to develop fully it must be with friendly customers and in recent years Japanese political ambitions, culminating in the recent activities in Manchuria, have run counter to Japan's economic interests in China. The trade with China has increased in the last twenty-five years but it has been disrupted frequently by the boycotts that have followed each act of Japanese aggression. They have resulted in serious losses in the export trade of Japan and they have undermined the good-will so essential to the development of the market.

Dr. Henry Kittredge Norton, author and lecturer, made a striking comment on the present situation:

The Open Door is an economic mirage. Our policy in China for the last hundred years, like that of every other Occidental power and of Japan, has been shaped by the belief that China is some day to become a vast market for manufactured goods. We have desired to preserve an equal opportunity for our producers to sell in that market. We have insisted that the door to China should be kept open for that purpose.

The recent hectic years, however, have raised some new queries in the world of economics. Slowly and grudgingly we have been learning that consumption can be more im-

portant than production, that the business and profits of industry cannot rise above the level established by the amount of purchasing power which industry itself distributes to that part of the population which will spend it for consumers' goods.

This analysis of our economic structure has now received sufficient acceptance so that it is pertinent to inquire as to its implications in the field of international trade. Is there any economic justification for the assertion that we need foreign markets in which to sell our surplus production? How much of the surplus can we possibly sell abroad to the advantage of our national economy as a whole?

Eliminating gold and services as minor items, we know that exports can be paid for only by the import of goods. Whatever goods we must buy abroad will be paid for by the sellers using the dollars they receive to purchase an equivalent value of our products. That is true for China or for any other country. When we try to sell more goods abroad, however, we find it impossible to receive payment except in goods which compete with those of our own producers. Trade under these circumstances simply profits some of our industries at the expense of others. There appears to be no profit whatever to the national economy as a whole.

Are we then, in demanding an Open Door, asking something which cannot possibly benefit us? If our exports are limited to the value of our imports, why seek an outlet for more exports? If the consumption of our goods by the rest of the world is limited by the purchasing power which we distribute as payment for imports, and that purchasing power will be used to buy our goods in any case, the Open Door is an economic mirage. If it has no economic justification, what is its desirability as a governmental policy?

The evening program proved the climax of the entire meeting, built about the general topic, "Bridges Across the Pacific," and the subtitle, "The American Policy in China."

Mrs. Pearl Buck, author of *The Good Earth* and *Sons*, was most graciously introduced and proved in no way disappointing to the many who may have come chiefly to hear her. She traced at some length the various stages of the awakening of China, and of the unfair advantage taken of her from time to time by stronger Western nations. The effect of her address was undoubtedly to increase the sympathy for and admiration of the long-suffering Chinese.

Following in almost sensational sequence came the able address of Chih Meng, author of *China Speaks* and Associate Director of the China Institute in America, on "American Contributions to the New International Order." Among other things, Mr. Meng said:

One needs only to mention some outstanding landmarks in history to recall vividly the eventful years through which "bridges" have been built across the Pacific. For instance, the Old China Trade, Yung Wing, Anson Burlingame, the Open Door Policy, and the remission of the surplus Boxers' Indemnity. The bond of friendship between the two countries has not been found without difficulties, for example, the Anti-Chinese Riots and the Exclusion Act. Also, America is very young; China is very old. They are separated geographically by thousands of miles of ocean. There are barriers due to differences in race, language, and tradition. Until recently there have been no vital economic relations between the two countries. In spite of distance, the racial and cultural barriers, and one or two unpleasant historical episodes, the most cordial relations have prevailed between China and the United States because the American people have been sincerely friendly toward China.

Mr. George E. Sokolsky, who spoke freely out of the abundance of his fund of information and experience on "Political Parties in China," was particularly questioned as to the efficiency of Christian missions in the Orient. He replied, "If by missions you mean the conversion of individuals from one religion to another, I should say they do not count for a great deal. But as an example by missionaries and missionary groups of the ideal of living in social and political life, practiced by them and proclaimed to their converts, it should and does count tremendously."

One left the hall almost burdened with a sense of responsibility for what one had listened to throughout these six sessions, of what should prove an epoch-making meeting. Truly such a sequence of fact, argument and challenge from such a brilliant galaxy of speakers should bring something of relief to a sorely distracted world and a seriously menaced civilization.

A CONFERENCE OF SOUTHERN LEADERS

A CONFERENCE of Southern leaders was held on April 7-8, 1933, at the University of North Carolina under the auspices of the American Library Association and the Southeastern Library Association to consider primarily the status of libraries, books and reading in the South.

The meeting was intended to bring to bear upon the solving of the library problem the experience and leadership in related fields of endeavor in the South by bringing together Southern leaders from the agencies of religion, education, culture and social welfare. There were in attendance 83 official representatives of these agencies from nine Southern states. The organizations and interests represented included college and university presidents, deans, professors from the departments of history, education, economics, psychology, and sociology, state departments of education, church boards, federated clubs, business and professional women's clubs, men's service clubs, educational foundations, character building agencies, library trustees, and librarians.

The conference considered the relationship of these various agencies in a well rounded community program and attempted to arrive at an understanding of their mutual problems. The library received special consideration in its relationship to the other agencies and in its governmental and economic aspects. Recent changes and trends in the functions and structure of governmental units were brought out, and how these newer tendencies were affecting or might be expected to affect libraries and other agencies were discussed. The importance of an informed adult citizenship was stressed as well as the need for books and other printed matter by those who are seeking to adjust themselves to the rapidly changing social and economic conditions.

The conference adopted among others the following conclusions and recommendations:

1. The continued existence of a democratic society depends upon the maintenance of the educational, cultural, and social institutions which promote general education and

wholesome living. These are schools, colleges, universities, libraries, museums, churches, and other character-building institutions and agencies for health and welfare. The services of these institutions must be preserved.

2. The importance and the necessity for economy in all governmental and other public services are recognized. Such economy should be constructive rather than destructive. It should be appreciated that as a result of the depression, the demands upon the social and cultural services of the government have increased rather than lessened; this is particularly true in the case of libraries.

3. Reorganization of local government to eliminate waste and effect economy through reduction in operating cost, instead of through elimination of essential services, should be the first line of attack.

4. It is apparent that a need exists in every community for machinery which will make possible adequate consideration of the interests of the entire community, rather than of special groups. We urge the formation of a citizens' council in every community, such council to be composed of representatives of all the influential organizations in the community. A citizens' council should study the problems of local government, evaluate the various services in the light of the community interest and work out a comprehensive plan for reduction of expenditures based upon the elimination of waste, with the preservation of essential services.

5. We commend the advances made possible by benefactions of individuals and foundations through the cooperation of the press, the radio, and other agencies of publicity, of government officials and of many local and national organizations. Continued and increased interest and activities on the part of these friends of culture are the hope of maintaining these advances in the present economic crisis and of assuring the cultural development demanded by the social order.